

# The Outlook

VOLUME 93

DECEMBER 25, 1909

NUMBER 17

PUBLISHED WEEKLY BY THE OUTLOOK COMPANY, 287 FOURTH AVENUE, NEW YORK  
LAWRENCE F. ABBOTT, PRESIDENT. WILLIAM B. HOWLAND, TREASURER. KARL V. S. HOWLAND, SECRETARY  
REGULAR WEEKLY NUMBERS, FIVE CENTS. MAGAZINE NUMBERS (FOURTH ISSUE OF EACH  
MONTH) FIFTEEN CENTS. YEARLY SUBSCRIPTION—FIFTY-TWO ISSUES—THREE DOLLARS  
IN ADVANCE. ENTERED AS SECOND-CLASS MATTER AT THE NEW YORK POST-OFFICE

## CONTENTS

Copyright, 1909, by the Outlook Company

|                                                       |     |                                                           |     |
|-------------------------------------------------------|-----|-----------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| White Slaves.....                                     | 881 | Hans Egede, the Apostle of Greenland..                    | 921 |
| Investigation Demanded.....                           | 883 | By Jacob A. Riis                                          |     |
| The Fall of Zelaya.....                               | 883 | Only a Step Beyond My Door (Poem). 932                    |     |
| The Labor Unions and the Steel Trust. 884             |     | By Jeannette Marks                                        |     |
| The Boy in the Mine.....                              | 885 | Remaking a Railway.....                                   | 933 |
| Safety for Life on Railways.....                      | 886 | By Sylvester Baxter                                       |     |
| Leopold of Belgium.....                               | 887 | The Black Dirt People.....                                | 949 |
| Budget Problems in Italy.....                         | 889 | By Henry Hoyt Moore                                       |     |
| Surgical Operations without Unconsci-<br>ousness..... | 890 | A Business Man's View of Missionary<br>Work in China..... | 958 |
| The Academy of Arts and Letters....                   | 891 | By Charles M. Dow                                         |     |
| A German Dr. Grenfell.....                            | 891 | The Italian who Lived on Twenty-six<br>Cents a Day.....   | 966 |
| The Outlook and the Sugar Frauds....                  | 892 | By Walter E. Weyl                                         |     |
| Is The Outlook Subsidized?.....                       | 894 | Training for War in a Time of Peace..                     | 976 |
| The Short Ballot.....                                 | 896 | By Major-General Leonard Wood                             |     |
| A New Application of the Federal<br>Principle.....    | 897 | Government Regulation of Wealth.....                      | 990 |
| The Spectator.....                                    | 899 | By Reuben D. Silliman                                     |     |
| A Scene in the Hetch-Hetchy Valley..                  | 901 | In a Snow-Storm (Poem).....                               | 995 |
| The Day's Work.....                                   | 902 | By Clinton Scollard                                       |     |
| Arctic Animals: Four Drawings by Paul<br>Bransom..... | 916 | The Ineffective Voter.....                                | 996 |
|                                                       |     | By H. J. Haskell                                          |     |
|                                                       |     | Index to Volume 93.....                                   | 997 |

POSTAGE is prepaid on all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 to the regular subscription price for postage.

CHANGE IN ADDRESS. Notice of change in address should be sent Two Weeks before the date of issue on which the change is to take effect. The change cannot be made unless the subscriber's Old Address is clearly indicated in addition to the New Address.

COPYRIGHT. All the contributions and illustrations of this number are fully protected by copyright and must not be reprinted without special permission. The editorial contributions of Theodore Roosevelt are fully protected by copyright, domestic and international, and are not to be reprinted in full except by arrangement in specific cases with the Outlook Company. Extracts from any of Mr. Roosevelt's articles, however, not exceeding one-third of the total, may be made, provided full credit to The Outlook is given.

RENEWALS. The date opposite your name on the yellow label which appears on your magazine shows to what date your subscription has been paid. Your renewal should be received two weeks before the date of expiration thus indicated, to prevent any interruption in your receipt of the magazine.

ADVERTISING. Orders, final instructions, and cuts for advertising must be received two weeks before the Saturday on which the advertisement is intended to appear.

CONTRIBUTIONS. All manuscripts, drawings, and photographs are received with the understanding that the Editors are not responsible for their loss or injury while in their possession or in transit. Return postage should be inclosed with each manuscript submitted, and a copy should be retained by each author.

### THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

Chicago Office, Marquette Building

287 Fourth Avenue, New York



This is as sensible a way to prepare for the day's work as can be imagined:

On arising, bathe with Ivory Soap—*it floats*.

Then don a suit of underwear which has been washed with Ivory Soap—there is *no "free" alkali* in Ivory Soap.

Wash with Ivory Soap—*it is pure*.

Everybody—unfortunately—does not know how to use Ivory Soap for the toilet. The way is this: Wet *both* hands. Hold the soap in the palms of the hands. Rub vigorously for, say, 15 seconds—longer, if the water is cold or very hard. Wet one hand and "work up" the lather. Wash the hands and arms. Rinse. Repeat the operation,

applying the lather to the face and neck. Rinse. Repeat again—twice, thrice or even four times. Rub dry.

It is a good idea to use warm (or lukewarm) water, to begin with, finishing with cold water. Warm water opens the pores of the skin. Cold water closes them.

**Ivory Soap . . 99<sup>44</sup>/<sub>100</sub> Per Cent. Pure.**

# The Outlook

DECEMBER 25, 1909

LYMAN ABBOTT, Editor-in-Chief. HAMILTON W. MABIE, Associate Editor  
THEODORE ROOSEVELT  
Contributing Editor



## WHITE SLAVES

The Immigration Commission created by Congress in 1907, and charged with the duty of investigating the subject of alien immigration into the United States for the purpose of laying before Congress information on which new laws could be based, has prepared its report. One portion of that report has been transmitted to Congress. It deals with what the Commission calls "the most pitiful and most revolting phase of the immigration question." This is the so-called white slave traffic. The investigations of this Commission, though carried on quietly, necessarily had the effect of bringing facts to the attention of police officials and public prosecutors, and therefore of bringing some of those engaged in this hideous traffic into the courts. The Outlook has already on two occasions within the past few months referred to the subject. This traffic is the business of importing and keeping for immoral purposes alien women and girls. That this business is extensive is scarcely questionable; but how extensive it is even the Commission could not ascertain. There are no statistics obtainable. The figures, however, concerning the arrest and deportation of alien women on the ground of prostitution, and of cases in the night court of New York of women convicted of soliciting on the streets and being inmates of disorderly houses, indicate a great range of nationality, with the French and Hebrew predominating. The Commission tells of the methods adopted by those engaged in the traffic to secure these women and to keep them for profit. The Commission outlines a typical case in Seattle to show some of the methods:

Flattery, promises of work, love-making, promise of marriage to a wealthy person,

seduction without marriage, kind treatment for a month or two, then travel with the procurer as wife, continual deception, then an explanation to a girl of only seventeen of the life awaiting her, which in her innocence she could not understand, then experience in a house of ill fame in Montreal, Canada, then personal brutality, even physical violence, taking every cent of the hard-earned money, transportation to Vancouver, to Prince Rupert, to Alaska, and to Seattle, in every city forced to earn money in a shameful life, with total earnings of more than \$2,000, none of which she was able to retain, then release by arrest and readiness to be deported if only the story of her shame can be kept from father and mother, sisters and brothers.

Such a case is one of virtual slavery; and so are even cases of women who knowingly come into the United States to enter the life of the prostitute. They are persuaded by promises of higher pay than they can obtain in Europe, but when they come here they find that their earnings are almost all taken by those who have them in their power. "Those who recruit women for immoral purposes," says the Commission, "watch all places where young women are likely to be found under circumstances which will give them a ready means of acquaintance and intimacy, such as employment agencies, immigrant homes, moving picture shows, dance halls, sometimes waiting-rooms in large department stores, railroad stations, manicuring and hair-dressing establishments. . . . They become acquainted as intimately as possible with the young aliens, and then use every conceivable method of betraying them." The men engaged in the traffic secure a control over these girls that is almost inexorable and that can hardly be loosened by our present laws or the present methods of administering them. An innocent girl is

881\*



often held at first by her affection for the man and by the fact that he is the only one that can protect her, often by his brutality, and often by conditions which make escape virtually impossible. If she does escape, other men in the same business soon discover her and inform her master. She finds appeals to the police useless, partly because she has been threatened with the police by her master, partly because women of her class have little experience with the police except that of arrest, partly because of her ignorance of the laws and language of the country. By the time such an alien woman has been in the country long enough to know some of the channels of assistance, she is both physically and morally so degraded and weakened that she loses even the desire for freedom.



#### HOW SHALL THE TRAFFIC BE STOPPED?

Though the Commission has not been able to find that there is any great monopolistic corporation behind this traffic, it reports the existence of organizations of importers. The Commission enumerates as the effects of this traffic not only the degradation of the women themselves, but also the transmission of disease, the waste of life which it causes, the ruinous influence on domestic life, and the stimulus which it has given to even worse practices which the Commission terms "the most bestial refinement of depravity." How to control this traffic is a problem on which the Commission offers certain recommendations. It recognizes very serious difficulties in the way of discovering and holding immigrant girls who are suspected. A mistake made by an immigrant official is very serious. In one case a respectable woman was held, the wife of a prominent American citizen. It was only because the error was discovered before she was informed of the reason for her detention that grave consequences did not follow. Naturally enough, immigrant officials are not eager to take chances. With a little ingenuity, therefore, procurers can, as a rule, enable the women they are importing to pass muster. The Commission points out that the motive for this traffic is financial profit, and that any law

or administrative method which would reduce, or, better still, eliminate this profit would be the most effective restraint upon it. It recommends certain administrative changes in the Department of Commerce and Labor, particularly with regard to the employment of special agents and matrons. Furthermore, the Commission recommends certain changes in immigration laws. These recommendations are as follows:

1. That Section 3 of the Immigration Act of February 20, 1907, be amended by removing the limitation of three years after the date of landing within which the prostitute or procurer must be found.

2. All persons violating the Act who have been debarred or deported, if they later return to and attempt to enter the United States, should be declared guilty of misdemeanor and should be punished by imprisonment for not more than two years, and at the expiration of such term be deported.

3. The penalties of perjury should be inflicted upon those taking false oath regarding the circumstances connected with these crimes.

4. The burden of proof regarding the date and place of landing should be placed upon the alien, if those facts are needed.

5. The keeping or management of any house of prostitution by an alien, or the taking of all or part of the earnings of any prostitute, should be sufficient cause for deportation of such alien.

6. Steamship companies should be required to take back from whence they came all debarred or deported passengers in the same class of passage in which they came to this country.

7. Cases should be prosecuted in the district where evidence is most readily secured.

8. The Legislatures of the various States should be asked to enact laws requiring the detention of every alien woman convicted under the State laws of practicing prostitution, and further providing for the notification of the Department of Commerce and Labor of such cases, in order that immediate steps may be taken for the deportation of such women.

9. The transportation of persons from any State, Territory, or district to another for the purposes of prostitution should be forbidden under heavy penalties.

10. The Legislatures of the several States should consider the advisability of enacting more stringent laws regarding prostitution. It is suggested that the Illinois statute regarding pandering be carefully considered.

The recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States emphasizes especially the need of the first, fourth, and the fifth of these recommendations. It is highly important that no one who engages in this



business should be allowed to go free merely because the alien woman he has enslaved has been here for three years. It is also highly important that the burden of proof regarding the date and place of landing should not rest on the prosecuting officer. And it is certainly highly important that, however much this country may be willing to act as an asylum for the oppressed of other nations, it should not serve as a harbor for aliens who are making a profit by degrading American life.



#### INVESTIGATION DEMANDED

The charges that officials in the Interior Department have been in collusion with private land claimants in the West for the purpose of securing public lands for private ownership in disregard of public rights and of the law are revived in the House of Representatives by Representative Hitchcock, of Nebraska, and outside the House by Collier's Weekly. Both are responsible accusers. Both make specific accusations, accompanying them with definite accounts of particular transactions and giving names and dates. Mr. Hitchcock demands for his accusations a Congressional inquiry, and accompanies his demand with the statement that his resolution calling for an inquiry is before the Committee on Rules, but that, if ninety per cent of the House desired such an inquiry, it could not be obtained without the Speaker's consent. We do not know whether that is true or not; it does not sound probable. But it is practically certain that an inquiry could not and would not be refused if it were demanded by the Secretary of the Interior supported by the President. The Outlook has already expressed its faith in the integrity of the Secretary of the Interior, and sees no reason to withdraw from him its expression of confidence. But, in our judgment, whenever a definite accusation is preferred by a responsible accuser who professes himself ready to make his accusation good against a public bureau, department, or individual official, justice, both to the accused and to the public, demands an investigation of the accusation. That there are exceptions to this principle is true; but they are rare.

If it were habitually observed, if every accuser of a public official were compelled to establish his accusation before a tribunal, groundless accusations would be less frequent. Such an investigation may supposedly be conducted in one of three ways: by the Executive Department, by the Congress, or by the Courts. When a subordinate is charged with wrong-doing, an investigation by his superior in office is often all that is called for; but in this case the head of the Department is declared to be under suspicion, and he has a right, and the public have a right, to have that suspicion thoroughly sifted. No Executive inquiry is adequate for that purpose. Investigation by a court is practicable only by an indictment of suspected officials or by a libel suit brought by them against their accusers. No evidence has been presented to the public adequate to warrant an indictment, and no one has a right to ask a public official to subject himself to the vexatious burden of a libel suit against any and every accuser. There remains as the only possible alternative a Congressional investigation. In the interest of the public welfare, and as a matter of justice to the Department of the Interior and the officials from the highest to the lowest, such an investigation ought to be entered on without delay. Collier's Weekly and Mr. Hitchcock should be called on to establish their accusations or to withdraw them as publicly as they have been made. It should be assumed that the President and his Secretary will welcome the opportunity to put all the facts before the public. And it is certain that if any one thwarts, hinders, or opposes such an investigation, he will only have himself to blame if he finds himself subjected to the suspicion of a personal unwillingness to have the truth known.



#### THE FALL OF ZELAYA

The withdrawal from office of President Zelaya of Nicaragua, following a week of turbulence in his capital city, Managua, is a confession that arbitrary power must yield in the end to pressure of outraged public opinion. For the first time in many years the dictator of this Central American Republic has been openly

opposed in the Congress which has been, as a rule, subservient to his wishes. With a strong revolutionary force threatening his overthrow by military defeat, with rioting in his capital, with political plotting close about him, and with the war-ships of the United States in his ports to support, if necessary, their Government's demand for the protection of American interests, Zelaya has been forced to bow before the storm. His message charges the United States with unjustly intervening in Nicaraguan affairs and "with publicly providing the rebels with arms." Whether or not intervention is justified will be better determined when the facts upon which our Government based its action are more fully known. It is to be noted, however, that thus far our Government has taken no step which can be criticised as beyond ordinary international practice. The withdrawal of diplomatic relations is beyond question proper, and no troops have been landed in Nicaragua, nor have any forceful measures been used. Zelaya's second statement is, of course, absolutely false; even if it be shown that American citizens have sold arms to Nicaraguan insurgents, that fact does not affect the falsity of the charge that "the nation" has "publicly provided" the rebels with arms. In a cable despatch to President Taft, Zelaya states that he cabled to Secretary Knox on December 4 offering to resign if a commission of investigation to be sent from the United States should find his administration detrimental to Central America. No such despatch ever reached Secretary Knox. What will follow Zelaya's resignation is in great doubt. It is reported that he wishes to be succeeded by Dr. José Madriz, one of the judges of the Court of Justice established through treaty by the Central American States at Cartago for settlement of claims between the Republics. It is not probable that this choice of a successor would be acceptable to General Estrada, who commands the revolutionary troops, and it is intimated that it would not be regarded by the United States State Department as a hopeful indication for peace and safety in Nicaragua. Since Secretary Knox's statement of the condition of affairs in Nicaragua, already reported in *The Outlook*,

our Government has evidently been patiently awaiting the progress of events. It is all-essential that we should have a complete account of all the circumstances relating to the capture and execution of the two Americans, Groce and Cannon, before it is decided what should be done about that matter. Very few people take seriously the proposition made by Senator Rayner last week, that the United States should arrest Zelaya, bring him to this country, and try him for murder. Apart from the investigation of the deaths of the two Americans, our Government will undoubtedly, because of the present condition of anarchy in Nicaragua, require ample guarantees that American life and property be guarded, not only for the moment, but for the future. In a large measure Nicaragua is a key to the general condition of Central American affairs. It is the largest of the five republics of Central America except Guatemala, has a population of something over half a million, has rich possibilities for agriculture and mining, and has attracted to a considerable extent American enterprise and capital. It has long been a turbulent country, and was so even before the famous filibustering expedition, in 1855, of William Walker, whose wild dream of a slave state in Central America led to his execution. What the country needs, and what all Central America needs, is a period of relief from civil conflict, constantly recurring revolutions, and commercial and political oppression.



#### THE LABOR UNIONS AND THE STEEL TRUST

At the recent meeting of the American Federation of Labor at Toronto the intimation was made that a great labor struggle between the employees and the management of the United States Steel Corporation was at hand. When, therefore, last week, readers of the daily papers found such headlines as "United States Steel Faces a War of Labor," "A Million and a Half of Steel Workers Assessed for a Fight," and "Unions Throw Down Gauntlet," they naturally looked to learn the reason why a labor contest of the most gigantic proportions had suddenly broken out. What they

actually found was that no such contest had begun; and if they reached an intelligent conclusion as to the reasons why such a contest was threatened, they were more fortunate than *The Outlook*. Without taking sides in a dispute which we confess we do not yet fully understand, we must admit that, after reading the declaration put forth at Pittsburgh last week by a group of labor leaders in conference, we are inclined to adopt the phrase used by an officer of the United States Steel Corporation to describe it—"Words; just one great jumble of words." The body which issued this document seems to have been a conference of labor union officials, most or all of them connected with the American Federation of Labor. It need not be pointed out that if serious dispute exists between the United States Steel Corporation and its employees, or a large majority of them, the matter is of National importance. What is called for, then, is a clear, simple, fair statement of the matters at issue. We search the Pittsburgh declaration in vain for such a statement. It contains much rhetoric, many superlatives, not a little high-pitched invective—but of plain facts it is lamentably bare. It is impossible to imagine John Mitchell putting forth such a perfervid and factless exhortation. We are told, to quote a single passage which does not stand alone in its vague eloquence, that, "grown rich by the consent of the people of our country, this corporation, in its mad greed for still greater riches, sweeps aside, makes and unmakes law, its enactors and executors, and is now engaged in an effort to destroy the only factor—the organizations of its employees—standing between it and unlimited, unchecked, and unbridled industrial, political, social, and moral carnage." The only thing like a definite accusation against the employers is that "on June 1, 1909, the United States Steel Corporation proclaimed its hostility. The right of the workers to associate for their common protection was no longer to be tolerated. Accompanying that decree was a notice of a further reduction in the already scant wages of the workers." This seems to imply the assertion that the steel workers are underpaid. If so, the facts ought to be stated, and the matter taken

up seriously and calmly with every effort directed toward conciliation and arbitration. Until, however, a satisfactory statement of grievances is made the steel workers can hardly expect to receive public sympathy. If we are rightly informed, the main point really at issue is that the labor leaders believe that the corporation is establishing, and means to establish, the open shop wherever possible, and the leaders hold that it is impossible for the labor unions to be effective where the open shop exists, for, they often say, "an open shop is an anti-union shop." If this is the cause of the labor conflict threatened, it may be pointed out that arguments of considerable strength may be brought on each side of this question, and that it is not to be decided offhand; still less is difference on this point to be made the cause of closing down one of the largest and most important industrial enterprises of the country. *The Outlook*, like the public at large, must wait for further information than is contained in the declaration of last week before discussing the questions supposed to be involved. It should be added, however, that the officials of the corporation state that forty thousand of their workers out of one hundred and sixty-five thousand hold stock and draw dividends from the company, and would be very unlikely to leave their work in order to injure the business in which they have an interest.



#### THE BOY IN THE MINE

After the explosion in the mine at Cherry, Illinois, among the first of the dead bodies brought to the surface were those of boys under sixteen years of age. Had the presence of such boys in the mine anything to do with the cause of the disaster? Those who have worked in coal mines and have intelligently thought about the matter are strongly convinced that lack of skill and proper training in the miners themselves is a fruitful cause of accidents. Boys under sixteen years of age cannot have the skill, the training, or the judgment of their elders. They take chances that a grown man would regard as foolhardy. They are often reckless and irresponsible. Such a law as that of Illinois which forbids the employment of



boys under sixteen years of age in the mines is a safeguard not only to the boys but also to all the mine workers. It has long been established that in all dangerous occupations accidents to children form a much larger percentage than accidents to adults. It might almost be regarded as a corollary that accidents caused by children form a larger percentage than those caused by adults. There is thus good ground for raising the question whether this accident at Cherry, Illinois, might not be due to the employment of boys. At the coroner's inquest testimony was given which shows clearly that such a question is pertinent. A fifteen-year-old boy testified that he and another lad had pushed a car with hay on it up to a flaming torch. According to the Chicago Tribune, he was asked, "Did you ever see any burning oil dripping from these torches?" "Yes," he replied; "the torch on the other side of us was dripping burning oil." "When you were working down there, did Rosenjack ever give you any orders what to do?" Rosenjack is the miner who has assumed blame for the accident. "No," the boy replied; "he did not tell me anything to do, or anybody else that I know of." "You left the car of hay up against the torch?" "Yes." "You knew that it was standing right up against the torch?" "It was pretty close to it." "Did you ever pay any attention to those open torches down there, or think that they were dangerous?" "No." "When you first saw the fire, was the car of hay standing close to the torch?" "Yes, just where we left it." "How close?" "About half a foot." The boy testified that Rosenjack tried to put out the fire with water that the two boys brought to him, and that all three were cut off by the fire from reaching the air-shaft cage. Rosenjack has disappeared, together with the other of these two boys, and it is understood that the mine officials have opposed any attempt to shift the blame from Rosenjack's shoulders. If the accident was due to a violation of the law in the employment of boys under the legal age limit, they have good reason for suppressing the testimony concerning it. We do not, however, wish to lay upon these mine officials any heavier burden than they are already bearing, for that in all conscience

is heavy enough. These facts, however, emphasize the need not only of stricter laws regarding dangerous occupations, but also of more vigorous and effective measures for their enforcement. The Outlook wishes to repeat what it has already said in connection with this disaster, that the law should permit only those men whose skill has been proved by adequate examination to be employed in mining. The custom which has been followed by many mining concerns of employing unskilled foreign labor because it is cheap has not only cost many lives, but has not even achieved its own purpose of economy. So, too, it seems clear that the employment of young boys in the mines has been hurtful to mining property, as it has been also a menace to human life.

**SAFETY FOR LIFE  
ON RAILWAYS** Last week there were disasters on the Lake Shore and Southern Railways. The first was at Northeast, Pennsylvania, the second at Greensboro, North Carolina. In the first three persons were killed and twelve injured; in the second twelve were killed and twenty-five injured. The first accident was caused by a rear-end collision; the second, by a broken rail. In the first disaster an express train had been delayed by a breakdown ahead. The automatic block signal system was in force, and when the repairs were completed the particular block was lifted. One newspaper account states that there was no block against the "Limited," due at that moment and continuing its sixty-miles-an-hour speed, the slower morning express being only a mile ahead. According to another account, the "Limited" overran the warning bull's-eye of the automatic signal system and a flagman's red lamp. At all events, "some one blundered." The tail lights of the slower express were not visible owing to a blinding storm, and the "Limited" crashed into the rear of the other train. The Southern Railway disaster, so officials claim, was caused by a hidden defect in a rail, and the defect became evident just as a train was about to cross a bridge. The train was derailed and thrown into a chasm twenty or thirty feet below. These disasters are noteworthy as they occurred at just the right

time to jog the House of Representatives at Washington into the proper attitude for the passage of measures to protect life on our railways. Two bills had been introduced by the Hon. John J. Esch, of Wisconsin, whose name has long been honorably connected with railway rate legislation. One of the bills protects the lives of employees by amending the present Safety Appliances Act. It specifically increases the kinds of appliances with which freight trains engaged in inter-State business must henceforth be equipped, and authorizes the Inter-State Commerce Commission to determine a uniform system of equipment. This bill should save the lives of hundreds of switchmen now lost owing to the confusion occasioned by the varying types of steps, brakes, ladders, running-boards, and grip-irons, or by their absence. The second bill should save the lives of hundreds of passengers now lost because there is no greater moral fear before the railway companies in case of accident than that of a local investigation of county officials, in addition to the company's own and a monthly report to the Inter-State Commerce Commission. As may be imagined, investigations have always been either superficial or biased. Coroners investigate railway wrecks where death is caused, but their researches are never exhaustive, experts are rarely connected therewith, no publicity is given to the findings, and no permanent record is kept. Investigations by railway companies are, of course, more exhaustive, experts generally take part, and a permanent record is kept, but the method of investigation and the lack of publicity leave much to be desired. The method is bad because, as is natural, the company's own share of responsibility is minimized. The publicity is defective because reports to the Inter-State Commerce Commission are often delayed. Hence the bill empowers the Commission to investigate all railway accidents. The House has honored itself by passing the Esch bills. Hereafter, if the Senate will now agree with the House, we may have immediate, exhaustive, and impartial investigations by Federal authority. Congress has been long in granting to the Americans the privilege of the immediate investigations made by the British Board of Trade. The Inter-State Com-

merce Commission is the administrative representative of the American people in respect to transportation. The people are aroused, and the Commission urgently needs the authority which the Esch bills would confer upon it.



#### LEOPOLD OF BELGIUM

Last week Leopold II of Belgium passed away. He was seventy-five years old.

As a progressive ruler of his country's internal affairs he had his good side. But in his private life, and in his own and his country's great foreign interest, he was a moral leper. In physical appearance he gave anything but that impression. Of erect figure, very tall, with well-formed features, ruddy face, a penetrating glance over the well-known square-cut white beard, his dress plain, his manner democratic but courtly, his conversation was so genial that an American lady who recently met him at court declared, "If he is the most immoral, he is certainly the most fascinating man I ever saw." His Queen, Marie Henriette, died in 1902. His disloyalty to her dates back to the days of a famous adventuress who about the middle of the nineteenth century excited the scandal-mongers of Europe. Since then the many women involved ranged from the ladies of the court to music hall performers and dancers. After the Queen's death Leopold lived openly with Made-moiselle Lacroix, a barmaid and the daughter of a janitor in the city of Louvain. He created her Baroness Vaughan, and, it is said, lately endeavored to improve her position and his own by amorganatic marriage. He kept tight hold of the family money, especially that of his sister Charlotte, the wife of Emperor Maximilian of Mexico, and the legacies bequeathed by Queen Marie Henriette to her daughters. Unable to collect them, they brought suit in the Belgian courts against their father. The King pleaded that his marriage contract was an international treaty and not a private agreement, and therefore, he said, the dowry was an affair of state and the money the property of the King alone. The King has long been on bad terms with his daughters. The oldest, Princess Louise, after running away from her hus-

band, Prince Philip of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, was declared insane and placed in an asylum, from which she later escaped and eloped with Count Mattachich, a Hungarian. The second daughter, Princess Stéphanie, married Crown Prince Rudolph of Austria, and was left a widow. A year later, against her father's wishes, she married Count Lonyay, also a Hungarian. The youngest daughter, Princess Clementine, has never married. She had been engaged to wed her cousin Prince Baldwin, son of the Count of Flanders, the King's brother, but the Prince was murdered a few days before the date set for their marriage. The Count's second son, Prince Albert, thirty-four years old, now succeeds to the Crown, as it descends only in the male line. The new King is known as a great student of political economy. His wife, the lovely Elizabeth of Bavaria, is popular. Three children have been born to them.



#### LEOPOLD II AS KING

If Leopold II's private life was thus unenviable, his public life was fairly enviable as regards Belgium alone. But it was abhorrent as regards his and Belgium's great interest abroad—the Congo. Forty-four years ago Leopold became King. During half of the intervening period the little popularly known about him as monarch was favorable. He showed himself particularly interested in economy. As evidence of this, he had, on his accession, agreed to a large reduction in his income. He always scrupulously kept within the limits of his powers as constitutional monarch, and even favored advanced ideas, such as old-age pensions; insurance of industrial workers, and the improvement of the dwellings of the poor. He developed Belgian industries enormously, investing his own money freely in them. Not satisfied with this, he began to speculate with intelligence and advantage in many foreign enterprises. As a young man he had been a great traveler, and distant affairs had a peculiar charm for him. In particular he was attracted by the journeys in Africa of the late Sir Henry Stanley and the material riches discovered by that explorer in the basin of the Congo River. In 1876 Leopold launched his Congo

enterprises. He called a great meeting that year at Brussels, his capital, of geographers and explorers. At the King's instance, the African International Association came into being. Stanley was again sent to Africa, and Leopold II financed the journey. In 1877 Stanley revealed beyond a peradventure the vastness and richness of the Congo basin—neither had been realized. The Powers looked greedily at such a colonial prize. But they reckoned without the head of a non-colonial power. Belgium had long envied Holland's colonial empire. Hence the Belgians were in the proper frame of mind to greet their King's carefully matured proposal. He had already perfected its machinery, and now offered to the Powers (upon the importance of whose mutual jealousies he had shrewdly figured) the Belgian monarch's tutelage over the neutral "Free State of the Congo" as being desirable. Was not Belgium itself a country whose neutrality the Powers had guaranteed for two generations? One by one the Powers consented, and in 1885 Leopold's development and exploitation of the Congo began. In 1890 he used a war against Arab slave-traders as excuse to induce the Powers to consent to the imposition of customs duties. Little by little Leopold's régime became autocratic. It started when he asserted that all vacant lands were the property of the Government—that is, virtually, of himself. Later he decreed that the letting or selling of domains and the mining and wood-cutting rights on any land the ownership of which was not recognized as appertaining to any one belonged to him. This meant that enormous tracts that had been held in common by the natives were confiscated. To fill up the ranks of the Congo forces and to get men for the public works he used forced labor. But of all abuses, the King's rubber monopoly has been the worst. It has resulted in almost a decimation of the population. Congo officials have been led on by a system of payment for results to exact from the miserable people every possible ounce. To get the rubber the natives have been forced to take long journeys from home. They have been visited with mutilation and death if they failed in their search. Against these and other atrocities our

own Government and the British Government have repeatedly and sternly protested. The transference of the Congo from Leopold to Belgium proper has not yet satisfied the Powers that any real reforms have been inaugurated. A great opportunity thus lies before King Albert as he enters upon his responsibilities as sovereign of Belgium.



#### BUDGET PROBLEMS IN ITALY

Last week Baron Sidney Sonnino became once more Prime Minister of Italy. His predecessor, Signor Giolitti, had resigned because of an adverse Budget vote in the Chamber of Deputies, the lower house of the Italian Parliament. The Chamber had rejected the Government's Budget, or statement of estimated receipts and expenditures. As we have seen, in England the Budget sometimes provokes such a parliamentary conflict as to lead to an appeal to the people. In Italy it has led to a change from a composite Cabinet of Radical hue to a composite Cabinet of more moderate complexion. As in England, so the problem before the Italian Government has been twofold: to provide more revenue and to equalize taxation. More revenue is needed, chiefly to pay higher salaries to all employees in the Italian Civil Service, especially the employees on the Government-owned railways; in Italy the cost of living has burdensomely increased, though not so much as in America, since the existing scale of Civil Service salaries was fixed in the two countries. Now for the other half of the problem, tax equalization. Premier Giolitti's course was somewhat similar to that of Mr. Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the Exchequer, in presenting the British Budget. Both proposed systems of discriminating taxation. Equalization is the more necessary in Italy, for taxes there rest proportionately more heavily on the poor than they do in England. Take such indispensable commodities to every one as petroleum and sugar, for instance. These importations are taxed exorbitantly. As the beet-sugar manufacturers cannot supply the demand, the lack must be made good by imports, and hence sugar has practically become a luxury in Italy. It

is not possible properly to develop industries there in which sugar is much used, especially the jam and preserve manufactures in the fruit-growing districts. Signor Giolitti humanely proposed to halve the taxes on the right to manufacture sugar and to reduce by a quarter the import duties on the commodity. Then, further to equalize the burden between poor and rich, he proposed an income tax. The poorest taxpayers would escape it altogether, for incomes less than one thousand dollars a year would be exempt; incomes between one thousand and two thousand would pay one per cent; the percentage would gradually rise with the increase in the amount of income until all incomes over forty thousand dollars a year would pay six per cent. Moreover, the Prime Minister proposed similarly graduated inheritance duties, and, finally, a tax on bonds. Such a total readjustment of taxation would, he hoped, place the burden where it ought to be, and would provide sufficient revenue. But to make assurance doubly sure, he proposed an increase of the rates on the Government-owned railways. The freight rates he would increase by three per cent and the passenger rates by no less than nine per cent; at the same time the Government would maintain large subsidies for steamship lines in return for possible use of vessels as transports in time of war. Here the Giolitti plan broke down. Though the Premier might have carried his sugar reform, the income and inheritance taxes were immediately opposed by a majority of the Chamber. They would have directly affected four hundred of the five hundred and eight members. While the income tax was really the feature most disliked, the members made their fight on the proposed increased railway charges, largely because of the pooriness of the service on the state lines, and resented the steamship subsidies because of alleged partiality shown toward certain favored lines, especially those of Genoa, Italy's largest port, to the detriment of smaller lines and smaller ports. Though the Lloyd-George and Giolitti proposals for tax equalization may be changed in particular methods, the principle itself must be carried in Italy and in England, as in every other civilized country.



**SURGICAL OPERATIONS  
WITHOUT  
UNCONSCIOUSNESS**

The recent arrival in this country of Dr. Jonnesco, a prominent Rumanian surgeon of Bucharest, has aroused public interest in the use of spinal puncture as a means of securing insensibility to pain in surgical operations. The anæsthesia necessary for successful operation is ordinarily secured by the inhalation of ether, chloroform, or "laughing gas." These anæsthetics at the same time produce unconsciousness. The method of spinal puncture involves the injection of a drug like cocaine, tropacocaine, eucaine, or the newer stovaine into the fluid surrounding the spinal cord by means of a specially constructed needle very much like the needle used for hypodermic medication. The result is anæsthesia, or, more properly, analgesia (the former signifying loss of all physical sense of feeling, the latter insensibility to pain alone) over a portion of the body more or less extended, but unaccompanied by loss of consciousness. The method is an extension of the principle of local analgesia produced by the use of cocaine and the like, which is of common application in dental work and for small operations. In local analgesia the drug is injected just at the spot where cutting is to be done, and insensibility to pain results in a small area immediately surrounding the point of injection. Regional analgesia secures insensibility to pain over a larger portion of the body, and is secured by injecting the drug into a main or trunk nerve from which the local nerves, which would be affected by a local anæsthetic, branch off. In spinal puncture the process is simply carried one step further back and the drug applied to the spinal cord, where all the nerves of feeling come together in one great channel leading to the brain. By this method insensibility to pain is secured, in ordinary cases from the soles of the feet as high as the breast-bone, and, by the use of a larger dose, even over the entire body to the crown of the head. Within two weeks the present writer has been an observer of an operation in which, after an injection of stovaine into the fluid surrounding the spinal cord, varicose veins were removed from a young man's legs in three places. During the operation,

which lasted over an hour, the patient was entirely conscious and thoroughly comfortable, except for slight nausea of brief duration at the beginning. The patient not only suffered no pain, but found it easy to read a newspaper and to chat with the doctors and the writer. He was an interested participant in experiments which showed the remarkable fact that, while in the lower part of the body susceptibility to pain was entirely absent, the senses of feeling and of temperature were still active. He could tell whether his foot was being touched in one place or in two, and could distinguish between hot and cold water poured over it; but the most vigorous attack with a needle was perceived only as a touch no more painful than that of the finger. Not the least interesting feature of the operation was the patient's condition after it. Any one who has undergone an operation under a general anæsthetic knows the excessive discomfort of the period of "coming out" from under its effects and the hours succeeding it. In the case in question there was no "coming out," because the patient's consciousness had never been "under." His wounds dressed, the patient was put to bed, promptly ate a good meal, and suffered no further inconvenience save the inevitable discomfort from the healing wounds.

□

**DISCOVERY AND USE  
OF SPINAL PUNCTURE**

Spinal analgesia or spinal puncture is the discovery of an American neurologist, Dr. J. Leonard Corning, of New York. His first application of the principle was made in 1885, and the method has been in use to a greater or less extent for twenty years. In New York City the surgeon who has made most extensive use of it is Dr. William Seaman Bainbridge. In a series of between six hundred and seven hundred operations, extending over a period of ten years and involving patients whose ages have varied from four months to sixty-seven years, Dr. Bainbridge has met with uniform success. He was the first to use the method on children; and in this connection it is interesting to know that Mr. H. T. Gray, Surgeon of the Great Ormond Street Hospital for Children in London, believes, as the result of three hundred cases

in which he has used spinal puncture, that the mortality in children has been decidedly reduced. Spinal puncture is in frequent use by Dr. Bainbridge, Dr. Dabarn, and several others in New York; Dr. Matas, in New Orleans; Dr. Morton, in San Francisco; Professor Barker, of University College, London; Mr. W. Arbuthnot Lane and Mr. Gray, of the Great Ormond Street Hospital; Professor Symonds, of Guy's Hospital, London; Dr. Czerny, of Heidelberg; Dr. Tuffier, of Paris; Dr. Bier, of Berlin; and Dr. Jönnesco, who is now in this country. It is not claimed, so far as we know, by any of those who use the method that it will ever entirely take the place of general anæsthesia, but it is well known that there are many cases in which general anæsthesia is either impossible or attended with the gravest danger. For such cases spinal puncture offers an admirable alternative. In medicine and in surgery, as in all science, a new theory or process does not attain an assured and final position without a long period of probation. The probation period of spinal puncture can hardly be said yet to have passed; but the experiments of those who have used it extensively seem to indicate that it has a place of its own in modern surgery.

#### THE ACADEMY OF ARTS AND LETTERS

The first meeting of the American Academy of Arts and Letters was held in Washington last week. Representative men of the fine arts were in attendance at the two public sessions and at the business meeting. Mr. Howells's introductory address at the meeting on Tuesday afternoon was a characteristically modest and delightfully phrased presentation of the intention and work of the Academy; not as constituting in any sense a body of men who arrogate themselves judicial functions or exclusive privileges of any sort, but as representatives of the various arts chosen by the National Institute of Arts and Letters—a larger and more inclusive organization—for the purpose of serving the American people by advancing in every possible way the interests of art in the United States. This may be done by some form of signal recognition of the excellence of artistic work, like the pres-

entation of the medal to Mrs. Saint-Gaudens by the National Institute of Arts and Letters at a meeting held in New York City three weeks ago; by the joint action of the allied arts on all matters affecting the rights, privileges, and opportunities of art in this country, and in other and more personal ways not easily formulated. The papers read by Mr. Blashfield and Mr. Thomas Hastings at the first session, and the papers prepared for the second session by Mr. Horatio Parker, Colonel Higginson, and Mrs. Howe, with a sequence of three poems written by Mr. Gilder and read by Mr. Johnson, struck a high level of literary workmanship, and from different points of view defined the place of the arts in America, their special opportunities in a great democracy, the possible intimacy of relation between the arts and a society like ours, and the possible services which the arts by co-operative action can render to the country. The note of all the sessions was enthusiasm for American art as a prime educational force for the enrichment of American life.



#### A GERMAN DR. GRENFELL

The death of Karl Theodor, Duke of Bavaria, removes a man who justly endeared himself to the people of all Germany. He was seventy years old. His father, Duke Maximilian, was a poet and writer who chafed at the perfunctory military routine pertaining to his rank. Karl Theodor started in life as an officer of artillery and attained the rank of general in the Bavarian army, being also titular colonel of the Third Regiment of Light Horse. But he never figured prominently in military or political affairs. His natural inclination was toward science, and early in life he took up the study of medicine at the University of Munich, graduating with the degree of M.D. It was not until 1880, however, that he was allowed to practice, and then he had to secure a special decree of the German Imperial Chancery permitting him to do so. He turned his attention to the treatment of diseases of the eye, and became one of the most famous of European specialists. A great deal of his work was done among the poor, and all without compensation. He maintained several private hospitals where

patients were treated free, and did much to introduce proper sanitation in German homes. He was the author of several books and memoirs upon ophthalmological topics. One of his sisters was the Empress of Austria, wife of Francis Joseph. Another was the Duchesse d'Alençon, who lost her life in the Paris charity bazaar fire in 1897. His wife was Sophie, Princess of Saxony. One of his daughters is the wife of King Albert of Belgium, and another daughter married Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria, a grandson of the Prince Regent, who may succeed to the throne upon the death of the insane King Otto.



## THE OUTLOOK AND THE SUGAR FRAUDS

Five of the men indicted for complicity in the notorious weighing frauds in the importation of sugar through the New York Custom-House were convicted last week. In the case of the sixth, James F. Bendernagel, formerly cashier of the Sugar Company's refinery in Brooklyn, the jury disagreed. Four of the convicted men were company checkers, who, it will be remembered, were the employees who worked in the scale houses where the frauds were actually committed; the other was the dock superintendent, who had complete charge of the unloading of sugar cargoes and the weighing of the sugar.

The attorneys for the defendants in their closing addresses maintained that, even if their clients were guilty, the real responsibility for the frauds lay upon the superior officers, whoever they were, who had instigated the false weighing and had profited by it. Mr. Henry L. Stimson, special counsel for the Government, said that he coincided fully with their views as to the relative degree of moral guilt, and that he regarded it as his duty to take all necessary steps to bring the men "higher up," if there were any, to punishment. "But," he continued, "we do not begin to build a house by putting up the ridge-pole. We began in this case at the place where the crime was committed. . . . If you find these men committed no crime, it will be impossible to go any 'higher up.'" The indictment and arrest, during the last week of the trial, of Ernest H. Gebracht,

General Superintendent of the American Sugar Refining Company, on charges relating to the same matters as the present cases, is ample indication that the Government has no intention of faltering in its prosecution of those responsible for the frauds.

At the opening of the trial just finished ex-Senator Lexow, of counsel for one of the defendants, introduced the name of The Outlook into the proceedings. He asserted that the result, if not the purpose, of an article entitled "The Case of the Seventeen Holes," which appeared in these pages last May, had been to inflame the prejudice of the public against the Sugar Trust, and that in view of this "public clamor" against the Sugar Trust it would be impossible to obtain a fair jury trial in this community. Mr. Henry L. Stimson, who, as special assistant to the United States Attorney-General, is in general charge of the sugar fraud prosecutions, made the following reply to Mr. Lexow:

There has been a great deal of public clamor about these cases, but it was not directed at these defendants so much as at their employer. So far as the reference in The Outlook is concerned, I wish to say that when the trial against the employer of the defendants to recover a penalty took place in February last there was no clamor. After a month's trial few readers of the public press knew even the result, and many inquiries were made at the District Attorney's office. I take full responsibility for having turned over to The Outlook the official records of the trial, so that they could base thereon an article setting forth the essential facts.

If giving to its readers facts of court record regarding fraudulent practices of lawbreaking corporations is indulging in "public clamor," The Outlook accepts Mr. Lexow's challenge and proposes to continue in the course which it has so far pursued. Newspapers have no right to prejudge the cases of indicted persons, whose liberty or whose reputations are at stake, until the court has rendered its decision; but they have a right and a duty to keep the public informed as to the essential and proved facts in any great trial involving public morals. No sharper or swindler likes to have the light of publicity turned upon his acts or his character, and it is a common plea of thieves

and swindlers that they are pursued and hounded by "public clamor." When they are convicted, in a fair trial and by their own admission, of fraudulent practices, the public ought to be warned against them, and the public indignation aroused for self-protection. The introduction by Mr. Lexow of the name of The Outlook makes it desirable for us to give to our readers the following frank statement of The Outlook's connection with the case.

On March 5, Theodore Roosevelt joined the editorial staff of The Outlook. On the same day the jury returned a verdict against the American Sugar Refining Company in the now famous Case of the Seventeen Holes. A week later Mr. Roosevelt attended the regular editorial conference for the first time. At the close of the conference Mr. Roosevelt said that he had a matter which he would like to lay before the editors. He read a letter in which Mr. Henry L. Stimson, then United States District Attorney, called his attention to the lack of publicity regarding the conviction of the Sugar Company in the case just closed. In the course of this letter Mr. Stimson wrote: "The Sugar Company was charged with rigging their scales so as to cheat the Government. The evidence brought out a shocking situation, indicating the operation of this fraud and other similar frauds for over a decade. There was also uncontradicted testimony, indicating a continuous and systematic and complete debauchment of the bureau of the Treasury Department which has charge of weighing, and, taken all through, the case was replete with features of public interest and importance. After a four weeks' trial the jury very promptly reached a verdict in favor of the Government. It was thus a case of the utmost importance to the commercial morality of this community, and one where it is all-important that the public should be informed of the evidence and of the decision. . . . During the year that this case has been pending, since the first discovery of the fraud, I think more widespread inquiry has been addressed to me on the part of the public as to its character and facts than any case with which I have ever been connected. Yet now that the case has been tried and the Government's position vindicated,

comparatively few people know of its evidence and main features. . . . A most important case has been so handled [in the daily press] thus far as to make it likely that its lesson will be largely lost to the public. Do you think it would be worth while for The Outlook to investigate the facts of the case and bring their lesson before its readers?"

This was the question which Mr. Roosevelt laid before the conference. Unanimous interest in the suggestion was immediately expressed, and Mr. Roosevelt was asked how soon it would be possible to obtain the facts as to the trial. Thereupon Mr. Roosevelt, with a twinkle in his eye, glanced at a card which had been brought to him a few minutes before, and said: "The facts are at the door. Mr. Stimson and his associate, Mr. Denison, are in the outer office now; may I ask them to come in?" The two attorneys and a black bag came in. In the bag were the stenographer's minutes of the trial and a piece sawed out of the stanchions of one of the scales containing one of the notorious "seventeen holes." The salient points in the case were quickly explained, and in five minutes the editorial decision had been made to prepare and print a full account of the case. In The Outlook for May 1 the article appeared, under the title "The Case of the Seventeen Holes." It was based entirely upon the stenographic record of the trial, which had been placed in our hands, and was the first story of the case, in any but the barest and most fragmentary, outline, to appear in print. It had its origin in the suggestion brought to the editors of The Outlook by their new colleague; and to Theodore Roosevelt and Federal Attorney Stimson belongs the credit of first directing public attention in any adequate way to this case, important in itself, and an effective stroke in the campaign against corporate wrong-doing.

The article was announced a week before its publication. Promptly one of the counsel of the Sugar Trust called at the office of The Outlook and saw a member of its editorial staff. He said that a warning letter to The Outlook had been prepared, but he had stopped it being sent, as he did not believe in threats. While admitting the thefts (as he could hardly



help doing, in the face of the just completed trial), he declared that they were the work of purely subordinate employees. He warned The Outlook against any intimation that any director or responsible officer of the Company had been cognizant of the frauds. He added that if he were such an officer, and such an intimation were to be made, he would not stop short of the Supreme Court of the United States in resenting the statement. He was assured that The Outlook was in no fear of laying itself open to libel suits. The article was printed as announced, and The Outlook feels that it has never done the public a greater service.



## IS THE OUTLOOK SUBSIDIZED?

One particular paragraph in the President's Message is of special personal interest to the readers of The Outlook and other newspapers and periodicals. It is as follows:

The deficit every year in the Post-Office Department is largely caused by the low rate of postage of 1 cent a pound charged on second-class mail matter, which includes not only newspapers, but magazines and miscellaneous periodicals. The actual loss growing out of the transmission of this second-class mail matter at 1 cent a pound amounts to about \$63,000,000 a year. The average cost of the transportation of this matter is more than 9 cents a pound.

It appears that the average distance over which newspapers are delivered to their customers is 291 miles, while the average haul of magazines is 1,049, and of miscellaneous periodicals 1,128 miles. Thus, the average haul of the magazine is three and one-half times and that of the miscellaneous periodical nearly four times the haul of the daily newspaper, yet all of them pay the same postage rate of 1 cent a pound. The statistics of 1907 show that second-class mail matter constituted 63.91 per cent of the weight of all the mail, and yielded only 5.19 per cent of the revenue.

The figures given are startling, and show the payment by the Government of an *enormous subsidy* [the italics are The Outlook's] to the newspapers, magazines, and periodicals, and Congress may well consider whether radical steps should not be taken to reduce the deficit in the Post-Office Department caused by this discrepancy between the actual cost of transportation and the compensation exacted therefor.

A great saving might be made, amounting to much more than half of the loss, by imposing upon magazines and periodicals a

higher rate of postage. They are much heavier than newspapers, and contain a much higher proportion of advertising to reading matter, and the average distance of their transportation is three and a half times as great.

The total deficit for the last fiscal year in the Post-Office Department amounted to \$17,500,000. The branches of its business which it did at a loss were the second-class mail service, in which the loss, as already said, was \$63,000,000, and the free rural delivery, in which the loss was \$28,000,000. Those losses were in part offset by the profits of the letter postage and other sources of income. It would seem wise to reduce the loss upon second-class mail matter, at least to the extent of preventing a deficit in the total operations of the post-office.

I commend the whole subject to Congress, not unmindful of the spread of intelligence which a low charge for carrying newspapers and periodicals assists. I very much doubt, however, the wisdom of a policy which constitutes so large a subsidy and requires additional taxation to meet it.

It is not impossible that the supporters of the policy of ship subsidies may see, in the President's definition of the low rate of second-class postage for newspapers and periodicals as a newspaper subsidy, an argument for ship subsidies. We certainly think that the argument might be very effectively used in attempting to persuade newspaper editors and proprietors of the desirability of supporting ship subsidies as a Government policy. We shall be surprised if we do not hear in Congress this winter the phrase, "No ship subsidies, no newspaper subsidies." So far as The Outlook is concerned, what the President says about "newspaper subsidies" only strengthens its opposition to ship subsidies. The Outlook neither desires nor asks to be subsidized; it wishes to pay its way; but it takes issue with the President's figures and his conclusions regarding the cost of transporting second-class mail matter.

The President says that the newspapers and periodicals now pay the Government one cent a pound for that which costs the Government nine cents a pound. The President, it is true, does not say that the newspapers and periodicals ought to pay nine cents a pound for "bulk postage." He must be aware that such a charge would destroy the periodical publishing business. What the effect of such a charge would be may be indicated by some

figures from the books of The Outlook. During the calendar year 1909 The Outlook will have paid the Government \$30,000 for carrying The Outlook to its subscribers. This is known in the newspaper trade as "bulk postage," and is exclusive of the letter postage which The Outlook pays on the transaction of its business, amounting to a large additional sum. If it were necessary, in order to conduct the United States Post-Office on a business basis, to require The Outlook to pay an annual "bulk postage" bill on this year's business nine times greater than the present amount, or \$270,000, The Outlook, if it continued to be published, would have to reconstruct its business entirely. And we do not think any other American magazine or weekly could continue to be published under anything like present conditions if the postage rate were raised from one cent to nine cents per pound. But, in order to remove the causes of the deficit in the Post-Office Department, is this necessary? We think not, for the following reasons:

First, if the Government is paying an average of nine cents a pound to the railways for carrying newspapers and periodicals, it is paying too much. The President says that the average haul of magazines is 1,049 miles. The first-class passenger fare from New York to Chicago on the Erie Railway is \$18. The distance is 1,000 miles. To transport a first-class passenger weighing 200 pounds from one of these cities to the other would cost only nine cents a pound, and mail-bags do not have seats, aisles, and other conveniences of air, light, and space. The rate of the United States Express Company between New York and Chicago—1,000 miles—is \$2.50 a hundred pounds, and the United States Express Company has never been accused of doing business at a loss. It is true that these analogies are not mathematically accurate, but they are accurate enough to be very significant. If, as the President says, it costs the Post-Office Department nine cents a pound to carry periodicals between New York and Chicago, there seems to be something the matter with the relations of the Post-Office Department to the railways. This has been said a good many times before,

with facts and figures to substantiate the assertion, and the present moment seems a very appropriate time to say it again.

Second, the President says that the profits of letter postage to the Government are so large as to reduce a deficit of \$91,000,000 to \$17,500,000. Some of these huge profits come directly from the newspapers and periodicals, as every one knows who is acquainted with the details of the publishing business. Another great portion of these letter-postage profits comes from the mail order business of the country, which is almost entirely created by the advertising departments of the magazines and newspapers. Another large element of profit to the Government is found in the postage and money order and registration fees paid by readers of the newspapers and magazines in transmitting their subscriptions. Is it promoting the commercial prosperity of the United States, in which the President is justly interested, to suggest that an important source of post-office profits be crippled, if not destroyed, by imposing upon periodicals a "bulk postage" burden which it would be impossible for them to bear, and which it is not demonstrated by the facts that they ought to carry as a legitimate element of cost?

Third, the entire deficit of the Post-Office Department for the last fiscal year is \$17,500,000. If the President will see that the railways bear their proper share of this deficit; that twenty thousand country newspapers which are now carried to subscribers within the county of publication absolutely free pay something for this service; and that the various departments of the Government, whose enormous volume of mail matter is now carried free, without even any bookkeeping record, are charged with the item of postage with which they would be charged in any well-conducted private business, we believe this deficit will be in future greatly reduced, if not entirely wiped out. When thus the railways pay their share of the present deficit; the country newspapers pay their share; the State Department, the Interior Department, the Treasury Department, the War Department, the Navy Department, the Agricultural Department, the Department of Justice, the Post-Office Department, the Department of Com-

merce and Labor, and the Houses of Congress pay theirs; and the President himself, in the transaction of his official business, pays his—when this is done, The Outlook, for one newspaper, will welcome the opportunity to pay its share.



## THE SHORT BALLOT

What is known as the Short Ballot Movement is beginning to attract widespread and respectful public attention as a desirable and practical method of improving American elections. In his recent address at the annual meeting of the National Civil Service Reform League, Dr. Eliot, President of the League and President Emeritus of Harvard University, defined the Short Ballot Movement very accurately as a "great reform movement which has spread rapidly over the country, the movement in favor of a large reduction in the number of elective officers." A few days later, speaking at the City Club, in New York, Dr. Eliot again expressed his approval of the Short Ballot and advocated the practical reform for which the Short Ballot Movement stands—the reduction of the number of elective officers in State and municipal elections. "Does this," he asked, "seem a curtailment of liberty? The present system has brought us into the worst condition of municipal misgovernment the world has ever known. I was not really free at the Massachusetts election. I could not execute the task set me. My liberty was completely without value. We should be freed from the idea that five hundred thousand voters are competent to pick out the best city engineer, superintendent of highways, or school superintendent. We must admit the principle of appointment in the case of experts to departments in which applied science is needed."

The advocacy of the Short Ballot as an organized political reform is comparatively new. It owes its inception, we believe, to the efforts of Mr. Richard S. Childs, a recent graduate of Yale University, now living in New York. A paper by Mr. Childs setting forth the philosophical wisdom as well as the practical advantages of a Short Ballot was first published in The Outlook a few months ago. Mr. Childs has devoted a large part of his

time to bringing the Short Ballot idea before the public by correspondence and public speaking, and a small society or association has been formed, which later, it is hoped, may grow into National proportions, for carrying on the propaganda.

While the present movement is new, the principle is as old as the foundation of the United States. Gouverneur Morris endeavored to introduce the Short Ballot principle into the Constitution of the State of New York, and, while he failed in this endeavor, was influential, if not instrumental, in introducing it into the Constitution of the United States. We vote for one President and directly or indirectly for three legislators in National affairs, but in State affairs we think it necessary to vote for a Governor, a Comptroller, a Secretary of State, a State Treasurer, a State Engineer, and only those in active politics know how many other officers. In city elections matters are still worse. Advocates of the Short Ballot desire to introduce into our State and our municipal elections the principle which has worked so successfully and so democratically for a hundred years in the National Government. This appears to us to be a very simple reform, which needs little argument to make its wisdom manifest and little legislative or mechanical effort to put it into operation. In the State let us elect a Governor with the power to appoint his cabinet after the manner pursued by the President of the United States, and one or two legislators; in the city let us elect a Mayor with the power to appoint his heads of departments, and one or two legislators.

In the minds of some people there seems to be a little confusion as to the relation of the Short Ballot and the Direct Primary. They have no organic connection, but may be carried on side by side.

You can have an effective Short Ballot without a Direct Primary, but you cannot have an effective Direct Primary without a Short Ballot. Some form of primary is necessary to party government, although it may very well be supported and added to by petition nomination; party government is essential—in the State and Nation at least—to the maintenance of American institutions; but the Short Ballot neither promotes nor destroys the boss

primary or the reform primary ; it simply enables the voter to vote with more intelligence, and therefore with more enthusiasm, when the nominations are made. Of course it naturally follows that it will indirectly quicken the desire of the citizens to participate in the operation of the nominating machinery. The strict party man, and the independent who likes to vote a scratched ticket, may equally become advocates of the Short Ballot. Its only logical opponent will be the selfish boss or the corruptionist who wishes so to envelop all elections with confusion and mystification that he may obtain his own selfish ends without the knowledge of the voter.



## A NEW APPLICATION OF THE FEDERAL PRINCIPLE

Sometimes the daily press, assiduous as it is in the search for news, misses an important event. For instance, it at first paid little attention to the suit of the Government against the Sugar Trust. With more excuse, practically all newspapers except the local press overlooked a meeting in Louisville week before last which was of National importance.

It is not surprising that the ordinary newspaper man should see no significance in the gathering of those few in Louisville. In the first place, it was a religious affair ; and most editors know that their readers are not particularly interested in the unproductive talk that characterizes most of such assemblages. In the second place, this was a meeting of the executive committee of a new and unfamiliar organization. It is true that this organization comprises over one-third of the people of the United States ; but even though it has a constituency of some thirty million people, it has gone about its business quietly.

A few years ago a number of men believed that it was time for the Protestant churches to organize. Industrial power to-day is due to the organization of capital ; workingmen have been able to secure in no small measure their rights through the organization of labor. It was inevitable that the churches, as soon as they realized that modern social conditions

challenged their power, should also feel the need of organization. Gradually there had appeared a movement toward denominational combination. It made its appearance in part as a union of two denominations into one, but for the most part as a federation of different denominations for some practical end in a new organization. Thus was established the Interdenominational Comity Commission of Maine, which, though only advisory in function, really instituted co-operative action in place of wasteful competition. So there grew up also State Federations of Churches. Limited though these new organizations were in territory and in power, they were visible evidence of the desire and the ability of diverse religious bodies to act in concert.

The significance of this movement lay in the motive drawing the churches together. This was not to formulate a common creed, nor to secure uniformity in worship, nor to establish a common form of government, but to render a service which they could not render separately. So long as the churches were content to deal with evils as they assailed individuals, they were content to remain apart ; but as they sought to deal with evils that assailed communities, or groups of people, or society at large, they found that they must co-operate. The individual church, for instance, could aid the individual victim of drink ; but it required the common action of many churches to cope with those conditions of life which beguile men into drunkenness. The recognition of the wastefulness in the duplication of effort had great weight ; but the sense of the helplessness of the individual church and even of the separate denomination in the presence of social wrong was the determining factor in bringing the churches together. In brief, the churches sought union in order more efficiently to serve.

Of course this movement could not stop with local federations. Discerning men finally brought about a great convention in New York of representatives of virtually all the chief Protestant denominations. Then and there was drawn the plan of a great Federal Council. In the course of three years the organization of the Council was effected. As a con-



sequence representatives of eighteen denominations (including practically all the largest and most influential ones), which, as we have said, comprise over thirty million communicants, assembled a year ago this month for the first meeting of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. At that meeting of the Council there was no miscellaneous talking. Instead of that, there were presented carefully prepared resolutions laying down definite policies. These were discussed and after some amendment were adopted. The Council is to meet once every four years. In the meantime its work is carried on by a proportionately representative Executive Committee, and certain subordinate committees or commissions charged with very definite duties. It was this Executive Committee which met week before last at Louisville. The Protestant Church of America is thus as truly a unit as was the American Nation when nine colonies had ratified the Constitution; and President Hendrix, of the Federal Council, is as truly the executive head of the federated churches as President Washington was the executive head of the federated States. As the States retained sovereign powers with regard to all State matters, so the denominations retain their integrity in all denominational matters; but in all that concerns the Church at large, these denominations, like the States, are now enabled to act as a unit.

Since it was the social problems of the time that brought these churches together, it was natural that these problems should assume a place of greatest importance in the action of the Federal Council. The Outlook reported at the time the remarkable resolutions on industrial and social questions which the Council adopted, and the formation by the Council of a Commission on the Church and Social Service. Now the Executive Committee has taken action to clothe that Commission with power and to enable it to draw upon the resources of the churches, so that, as an agent of the churches, it may do something else than talk about the moral problems that beset society to-day. This action is the most important taken by the Executive Committee. It indicates that the Church will no longer be helpless before such evils as child labor, and plague-

breeding tenement-houses, and political corruption, and the saloon power, or before such moral difficulties as are presented by the immigrant inundation, and the depopulation of country districts, and the complexities of modern industry.

It is true that various denominations have already undertaken to face these questions. The Episcopal, the Congregational, the Methodist, the Baptist, and, most notable of all, the Presbyterian bodies have departments or committees which are dealing in one way or another with social problems. The Department of the Church and Labor of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions has, it is fair to say, virtually revolutionized within a few years the attitude of the trades unions toward the Church. The Church Association for the Advancement of the Interests of Labor, which is an organization of the Protestant Episcopal Church, has rendered service by intervening in industrial disputes, and the Social Service Commission of the Diocese of New York of the same Church has helped to make public opinion sound within the Church. The Baptist and Methodist Committees have done good work by means of publications. Through the federal principle established by the Federal Council, the Commission on the Church and Social Service can enable these agencies to act co-operatively, and can supplement their action with action that none of them could take alone.

It is plain that the Protestant churches of America have by this federal action undertaken a twofold duty. On the one hand, they have seen their work not only hindered but often actually negated by the division of the moral and spiritual forces of a small community between several religious bodies. They have become ashamed of this fact, have heeded the remonstrances that have come from men of affairs against this condition of things, and have at least taken the first step toward preventing the multiplication of churches and the division of resources in new communities. On the other hand, the Protestant churches have recognized not only that the work they have been doing has been wastefully done, but also that some work which they ought to do, and indeed must do, cannot be done at

all unless they do it together; and they have taken the first step toward the efficient performance of this work. At another time The Outlook will undertake to show what possibilities lie before the churches in the performance of this twofold duty.



## THE SPECTATOR

The Spectator was so fortunate, some months ago, as to come upon a high ecclesiastical function at Cologne. It was coincident with his first sight of a great cathedral, and the pictorial splendor of the Roman Church and the great sincerity with which the mediæval builders wrought were thus demonstrated for him with a singular impressiveness. If, to a mind accustomed to the extraction of a poignant spiritual significance from the austere structure of the liturgies of orthodox New England, the occasion of this international conference appeared somewhat inadequate, the brilliant color, the gorgeous vestments, the reverberating bells, the well-considered dramatic value of the spectacle, were perhaps the more keenly to be appreciated. It was at the end of the week devoted by the dignitaries of the Church to the consideration of "the perpetual adoration of the blessed sacrament," and, with the many delegates from all over the world, there were said to be a hundred and fifty thousand strangers in the old city, while the curious crowds before the cathedral, the kaleidoscope of costume, the black dots of frocked and hatted priests, the scarlet-cloaked vigilance of the vergers, all hinted at the pageant of the morrow. Scarcely had the Spectator reached his rooms, which, most happily, looked out upon the converging point of two streets just around a corner of the cathedral square, when the penetrating undertone of the Kaiser bell droned its message over his head, under his feet, through the very air he breathed. At first, with true American alertness, he conceived it to mean a fire, so different was its continuous reverberation from that of any bells of his native environment, or even from the metallic chimes of Amsterdam, lately in his ears. But the profound, insistent note soon grew to mean the voice of the great cathedral, monoto-

nous, impersonal, unappealing in its aloofness, dominating in its persuasiveness.



The next morning the clergy assembled to celebrate a pontifical high mass conducted by the papal legate, Cardinal Vannutelli—a name familiar to the interested during the last papal election. It was on their departure after its conclusion that occurred one of the several dramatic moments of the hour. The place before the church was a mass of human beings over whose heads the Spectator looked to the steps kept clear by the mandatory wand of a scarlet verger. The murmur of expectation subdued to reverence, the watchfulness of the ecclesiastical and lay guardians of the place, produced an atmosphere of suspense. Suddenly the crowd which had been fitfully pouring in began to pour steadily out; the mass was over. The mounted police on their finely trained horses, which sidled against the ranks of humanity, pressing them back, but not clumsily stepping on them, moved down the shifting aisles of the square. The carriages waiting beyond the portals began to move steadily forward. Overhead droned unceasingly the Kaiser bell—never triumphant, always assertive—and forth from the beautiful doors came the cardinals and the lesser clergy. If the bells were not triumphant, the sacerdotal colors were; here was no scorn of an appeal to the ravished senses. White and gold, purple, crimson, and blue, the immaculate white of the Dominican, the royal purple of the Bishop, the challenging scarlet of the Cardinal, shone and burned and wavered against the mellow background of the sculptured stone. Cardinal Vannutelli's powerful frame and impressive figure were the storm-center of the enthusiasm, and they were in admirable composition as he stood repeatedly raising his hands in that affable and finished accomplishment of benediction so perfectly attained by princes of the Church. His long robe upheld by functionaries, his figure towering above the purple and lace and gold, the prestige of his prominence at Rome about him like a garment, he was a striking representation of the claims of a visible vicereignty. The shouts of the people surged about him as he drove away, and after him, down the steps, through

the crowd, streamed the lesser luminaries. The petunia has always seemed to some a flower with peculiarly slender pretensions to beauty, but the collection of bishops, before it finally disintegrated, recalls nothing more vividly than a bed of petunias, so precisely was it the color of that cherished guest of many a modest New England home. Many of the individuals, in their beautiful garments, walked away from the church, mingling with the crowd and distributing somewhat casual blessings while they dodged cabs, electric cars, and automobiles. Just below, one of them but narrowly escaped the unsusceptible trolley. The Spectator held his breath for an instant; to have a bishop in his very best canonicals run over by an electric car was too striking a demonstration for even modern taste of the collision between the old and the new, the traditional and the illuminating.

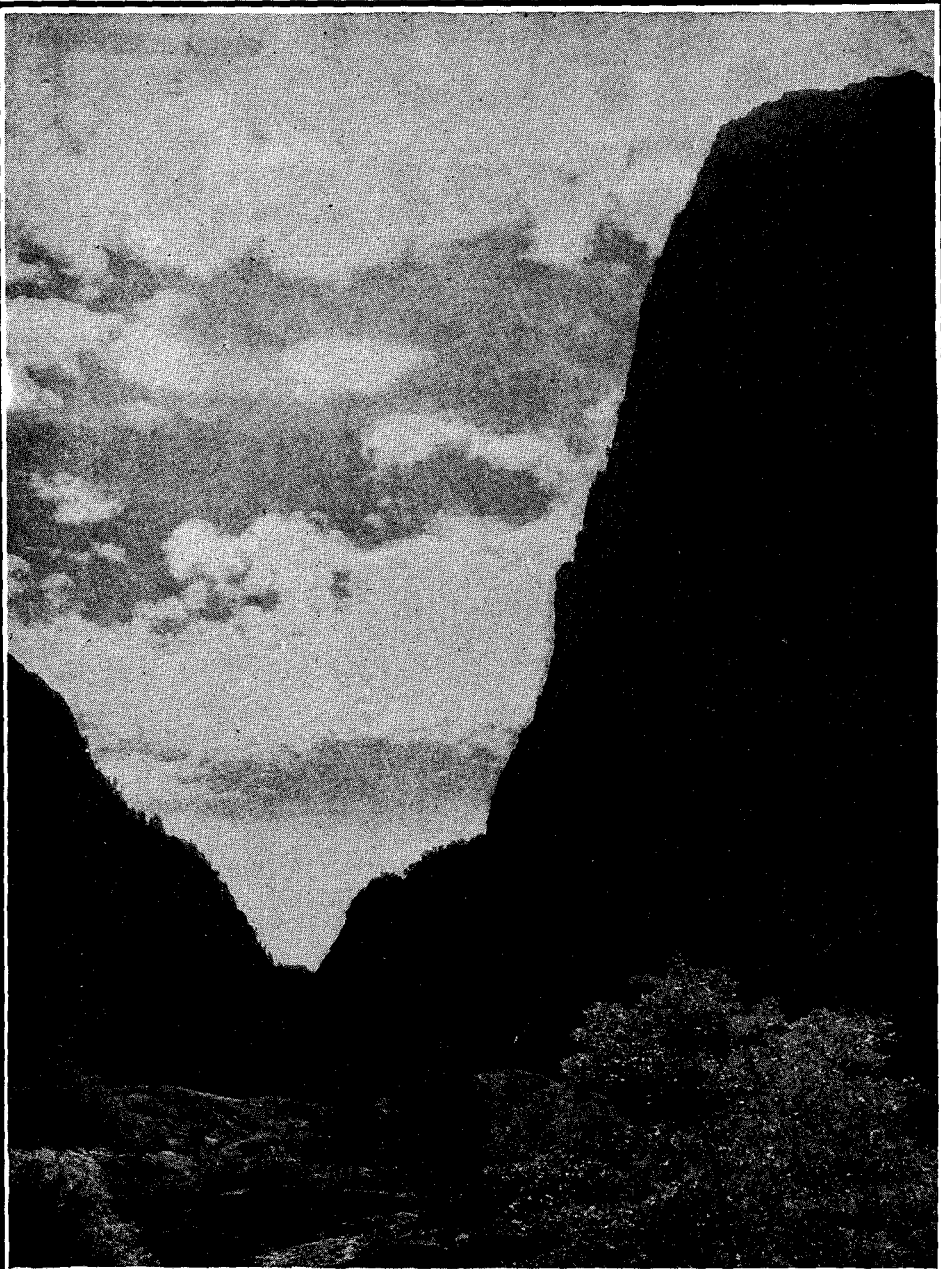
The Spectator watched the sumptuous procession of the afternoon defile before his windows in all its long-drawn-out splendor and variety. A riot of color one moment, the next the black monotony of many nuns, preceded by a body of students, their absurd little caps on the sides of their somewhat unreflecting heads. The black nuns thus fated to follow after a fantastic indication of the world they had renounced were, in their turn, followed by other religious sisters, still in black, but with broad-winged white caps, the *dernier cri* of starched perfection, and then by another black-veiled phalanx. As the procession paused just beyond and they stood below, filling the narrow street from curb to curb, the effect was curiously like that of black motionless pools with, upon their surface, a patch of quivering white water-lilies swaying on pliant stems. Then, after the black, came black with white edges, and the white cottas and red collars of choir-boys, and the gleam of great brass pots filled with flowers, and the broideries of uplifted banners. At last the inevitable tinkle of the mystical bell, and, under a gorgeous canopy of blue and gold, the approach of what, to so many, was the central fact of the whole great ceremony. Behind the Host followed Cardinal Vannutelli, his long robes stretching out behind him in the hands of his

train-bearers, then the other cardinals, and then the dazzle and glow of miter and crozier and cope and chasuble. Just opposite, an old man had spread his handkerchief upon the pavement for his somewhat stiff knees to rest upon, and in all the air was the rumbling deep overtone of the Kaiser bell.

If the egress of the spiritual potentates upon the cathedral steps had had its own dramatic value, the psychological moment of the whole day, and undoubtedly of the whole week, was the final benediction given upon those same steps as it drew to a close. The square had been crowded in the morning; it was now a compact mass of heads upon which one could have walked as on a parti-colored mosaic pavement. Through hours of the beautiful hot summer afternoon the multitude had waited and shifted and steadily augmented, and now, long after seven o'clock, at last the procession was returning from its protracted and weary march. The level sun rays were full upon the glitter as it drew near through the way made possible only by the quiet, persistent, undeviating vigilance of the guards. Slowly it mounted the wide steps, bowing towards the temporary altar erected at the summit. Breathlessly the populace watched the brief ceremonies before the elevation of the Host. There were fifty thousand people in the square, they said, and it was still and silent with the tense repression of excitement. The officiating priest turned towards the people and raised the monstrance, and, like the grain of a wind-blown field—a comparison so trite but so inevitable!—the thousands of heads were bowed in a moment of that united, vibrating emotion which may leave the observer unconvinced but not unimpressed.

The peculiar, irresistible force of a vast concourse of human beings swayed by one impulse, joining in one expression of sentiment, made itself recognized as the priest turned, with raised arms, first to one side and then to the other, the sunlight glancing on the gem-encrusted gold in an instant of visible pomp and splendid assumption, and sparkle and vividness, and an invisible tremor of religious exaltation.





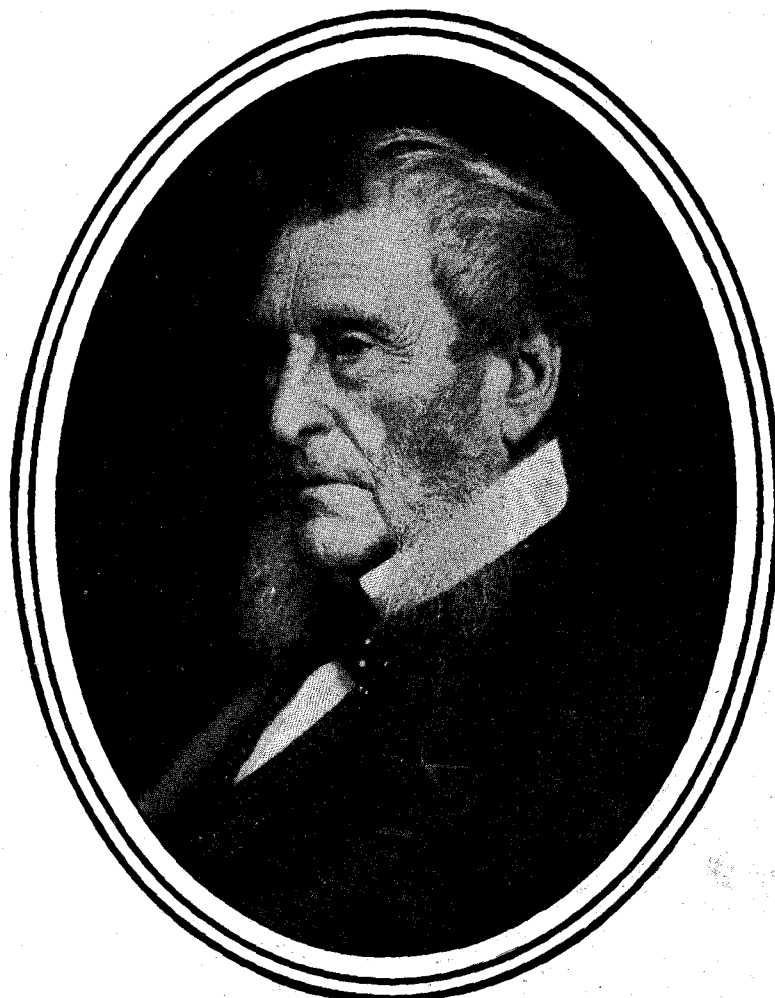
PHOTOGRAPH BY HERBERT W. GLEASON

COURTESY OF THE SIERRA CLUB

*A scene in the famous Hetch-Hetchy Valley of the Yosemite National Park, which Mr. John Muir said, in November, "is again in danger of being destroyed. . . . Let all those who believe that our great National wonderlands should be preserved unharmed as places of rest and recreation for the use of all the people now enter their protests asking Congress to rejectt his destructive bill (a bill which will be urged at the present session of Congress) to make the Hetch-Hetchy Valley a reservoir site for the city of San Francisco."*



# The Day's Work



PHOTOGRAPH BY PACH BROS.

JOHN BIGELOW

## New York's First Citizen

We doubt if there is a finer living example of vigor of mind and body, preserved to what is commonly called "an advanced age," than is found in the personality of Mr. John Bigelow, who has just passed his ninety-third birthday. His three volumes of reminiscences, "Retrospections of an Active Life," published last month, were recently reviewed in these pages. Mr. Bigelow's long, arduous, and honorable service as

a diplomat, statesman, and man of letters has not dulled the edge of his desire to still serve the public when he can. The public question which perhaps enlists his most active interest to-day is that of the tariff. Mr. Bigelow is not merely a free-trader, but a courageous and militant free-trader. Last July, during the discussions over the Payne Tariff Law, Mr. Bigelow expressed the hope that the day would come when every harbor on our seacoast would be "as free to the commerce of the world as those of New York

are to those of New Jersey, or those of Pennsylvania are to those of Virginia." In reply to this, The Outlook asked Mr. Bigelow how he would deal with the practical difficulty that New York and New Jersey are reciprocal in their free trade, while if the United States admitted, let us say, German products absolutely free, Germany would still undoubtedly impose a duty on our products, and we should not have international free trade as we now have inter-State free trade. Mr. Bigelow's reply to the query of The Outlook was so characteristic of his vigorous views regarding the tariff, and is put in a spirit of such delightful humor withal, that, in order to give our readers some idea of his tariff philosophy as well as a glimpse of his striking personality, we have asked his permission to print it:

*Dear Sir:*

Being a subscriber of The Outlook, your paragraphs in the July 24 number were not likely to escape my attention. I gratefully appreciated the generous tone with which my own name and doings were mentioned. In fact, I was so sensibly affected by it that I forebore a reply, which was at the very end of my pen, to the last paragraph about reciprocal free trade between New York and New Jersey. I wanted to ask The Outlook, if its neighbor were to steal its apples, whether it would be warranted in stealing its pears? But your taffy disarmed me.

I am obliged to you for the proffer of The Outlook's hospitality, and if I were, like so many of our tariff-ridden countrymen, out of work, I should be most happy to avail myself of it; but at present, and for a month or two to come, I am a slave of the De Vinnes [Mr. Bigelow was at the time seeing the proof-sheets of his reminiscences through the De Vinne Press]. I shall put your note among my agenda to be re-perused when I hope to recover a little time that I can call my own.

Meantime I regret very much that the editor of The Outlook should not see, not merely the impolicy, but the flagrant unrighteousness of any tariff whatever upon imports—unless it were for the exclusion of vicious and Black Hand immigrants. A tariff upon imports is war against every foreign nation; and war General Sherman described very justly as hell. He was speaking of our Civil War, which was hell, although the combatants on both sides were pretty unanimous in thinking their cause was just. But no reflecting person can think that a tariff upon imports, which is a privilege for the hundreds protected at the expense of the thousands who are unprotected, is just. It is war. We are in flagrant war at this very moment. In more than half of the States of

this Union to-day labor and capital are and for some years have been arrayed against each other, and privation of rights always and bloodshed only less frequently have been the consequences. What else are our desolating labor troubles but civil war? The fact that the mass of the combatants on both sides are not soldiers nor in uniform only makes the prospects of a permanent peace more remote.

It made me sad to see The Outlook extenuating an utterly unconstitutional mode of taxation which is compelling our people to pay fully fifty per cent more for their supplies from foreign countries than they are worth or need to have cost. It is a consolation to me, however, to reflect that The Outlook will soon have to haul its wind; for it has never happened that a policy that was unconstitutional, unrighteous, and oppressive to a majority of the people did not in due time come to a disastrous end. But then The Outlook can only have the privilege of singing the tariff's requiem.

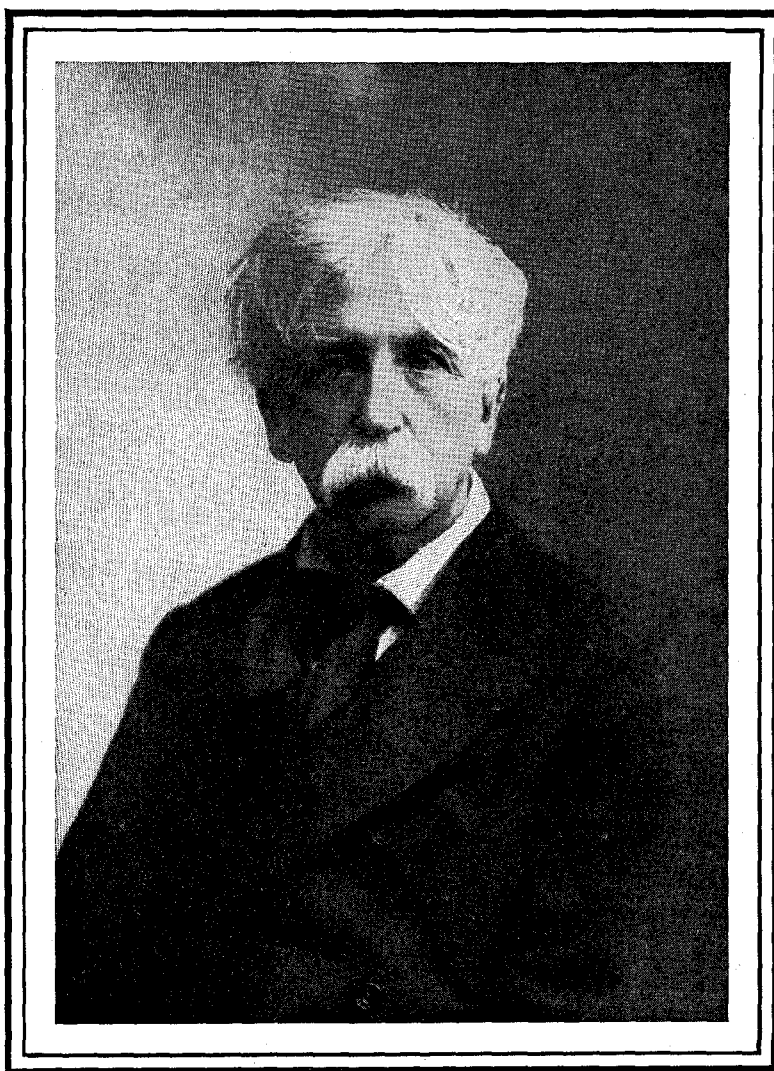
Yours sincerely all the same,

JOHN BIGELOW.

### The Dean of Dramatic Critics

Providing amusement for the people is always morally an extra-hazardous occupation, for amusement-seekers are morally, as well as mentally, relaxed, and in the nature of things take nothing seriously. For this reason the theater has been more or less under the ban ever since the Middle Ages. The fault is not with the actors and actresses. It is not with the theater managers. It is with the inherent tendency of mankind to be morally as well as intellectually careless when they are pleasure-seeking. The remedy may be either a governmental or a popular censorship. The Government may decide beforehand what plays may be produced, and act as the guardian of the people's morals. But the American people do not wish to have guardians of their morals, and governmental censorship is almost as impossible as the censorship of the press. We must trust, in America, to public opinion to hold the stage up to a reasonable standard both of moral and of æsthetic judgment, and the only way of giving effectual expression to this public opinion is through the press. Corruption or enervation of the press is therefore fatal to theatrical excellence.

For some time past the theater in America has been under the control of men who had no scruple about corrupting



WILLIAM WINTER

the press by purchasing its judgment. This has not been done openly and publicly. It has been done by giving advertisements to favorable newspapers and refusing them to unfavorable newspapers, and by getting through social means on the right side of theatrical critics. With theatrical criticism roaring as gently as any sucking dove, and with competition eliminated by a theatrical trust, the theater in America, conducted as an almost purely commercial enterprise, has come to be largely without any recognized standards by which its performances can be judged. Instead of a public opinion to mold the

stage, the stage has molded public opinion. Instead of artistic ambition inspiring the theater, its inspiration has been commercial and its standard the condition of the box receipts.

In these sentences we describe rather a tendency than a condition, because this tendency has been vigorously and valiantly fought by some brave actors and actresses who cared more for self-respect than for great incomes, and by some keen and high-minded critics who regarded themselves as sworn to tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. Among these critics William Winter holds

a first place. For nearly or quite forty years he has been writing criticisms on the American stage. He has written without fear and without favor. It would be too much to say that he has written without prejudice, for we all have our prejudices, but they have been æsthetic, not commercial; his own prejudices, not prejudices purchased in the market. The reader of William Winter could always depend on getting from his pen a scholarly, intelligent, disinterested, and fearless estimate of any play concerning which he undertook to inform his readers. He has not fallen into the mistake of some moralists and thought that the actor must be a preacher and the play a sermon in dialogue, but, on the other hand, he has not fallen into the error of some critics in thinking that the much-used phrase "art for art's sake" means that the moral law has nothing to do with theatrical representations. Because the moral law has much to do with life, it has, or ought to have, much to do with all interpretations of life. Mr. William Winter's criticisms, recognizing this fact, have held dramatic art up to a high standard of moral as well as æsthetic excellence. All that one man could do he has done, and it is a great deal, to save the theater from degradation and make it the instrument of innocent recreation and of emotional and artistic inspiration, which it always might be and sometimes is, though not too frequently. He has rendered other services also to literature, but he will be known chiefly, we think, to the future, as he has been known to the present, as a fearless writer of theatrical criticism.

### His House in Order

It is appropriate that the man to whom fell the task of cleaning up the New York Custom-House is the one who was in large measure responsible for the first investigation into the sugar frauds. Five years ago William Loeb, Jr., then Secretary to President Roosevelt, succeeded, with the President's backing, in having his boyhood friend Richard Parr assigned to special duty on the docks at the Sugar Trust refineries in Brooklyn. Parr had already been working there in a subordinate capacity and had come upon signs of sys-

tematic frauds in the weighing of imported sugar. After months of painstaking work, in the course of which he was continually encouraged and supported by Mr. Loeb, Parr ran the frauds to earth, and, as a result of his work, the Sugar Trust was convicted of theft. On the day that the Sugar Company was convicted the new Administration came into office. Mr. Loeb stepped from the position of Secretary to the President into that of Collector of the Port of New York. The trial of the Sugar Company and subsequent developments in other directions showed, not only that the Government was being widely robbed by unscrupulous importers, but that the public service in the Custom-House had been debauched and that many of its members were implicated in the frauds. The new Collector possesses in ample measure the qualities of courage, pertinacity, and quiet (almost ominously quiet) efficiency. You might compare him to a bulldog, if the simile were not a little shop-worn. In a very few months, working in hearty co-operation with the prosecuting officials of the Department of Justice, Mr. Loeb gave the Custom-House one of the most thorough house-cleanings that any branch of the public service has known for many a day. Just what he has accomplished and just how he has done it will be told in an article prepared by Mr. Lyman Beecher Stowe for use in an early issue of *The Outlook*.

Mr. Roosevelt, when he was Governor of New York, found Mr. Loeb in the position of stenographer to the Grand Jury and the District Attorney in Albany. He secured him as his private secretary, and when he became Vice-President, Mr. Loeb went with him to Washington. For two years after Mr. Roosevelt became President Mr. Loeb was his assistant secretary under Mr. Cortelyou, and in 1903 he became the President's private secretary.

To describe the Collector personally we cannot do better than quote from an appreciation by Willard French, published in *The World To-day* last year:

He is put together with the solid symmetry which gives the impression of a large man; but the President is not tall, and Loeb is an inch or two shorter. His black hair and mustache, his quick, dark eyes that move without waiting for his head to turn—a





COPYRIGHT 1909 BY PACH BROS.

WILLIAM LOEB, JR.

head that is finely foreheaded and delicately chinned and rests with superb self-reliance on his square shoulders—put Loeb well up in the class of handsome men. . . . The whole make-up of the man betrays the genius of penetration, the courage of convictions, the personification of invincible energy. You see him and you know why he is king of private secretaries.

He moves and speaks with the deliberate dignity of one who thoroughly understands himself. The secret of success, supplementing this, is his untiring patience in making others understand him. I have not heard of it if any one ever saw Loeb out of temper, but every line of him, from forehead to foot, shows that grand possibilities for that kind of thing lie patiently waiting the necessity for something else than imperturbable courtesy. He has a warm heart for the right when it is in trouble, and a strong hand to redress a wrong. But he has a keen eye, too, for a scorpion in a bed of roses, which he has more than once or twice discovered, to the satisfaction of the President and the discomfort of the scorpion.

Withal, Loeb has only turned forty, and betrays but a part of that. He has Time well by the forelock.

### The Prosecutor of Standard Oil

The outcome of the Government's suit against the Standard Oil Com-

pany must have come as a surprise to many. It was a matter of common and rather cynical belief with the "man in the street" and his companions that, whatever the Government might do to other industrial combinations, it could not touch the Standard. The biggest of the Trusts had for a generation been uniformly successful in whatever it undertook. It had waxed fat and kicked—now the producer, now a competing refinery or pipe-line owner, now the oil-using public. Its very bulk seemed to give it immunity.

But when the Federal Government, in the course of its campaign against illegal combinations, came to attack the Standard, it put at the head of its forces a redoubtable fighter, with one big victory already to his credit. Frank B. Kellogg's



COPYRIGHT 1908 BY BROWN BROS.

FRANK B. KELLOGG

first employment by the Government was in the case against the Paper Trust, which lasted from the end of 1904 to the spring of 1906. The Government charged that twenty-three companies making news, Manila, fiber, and other papers were combining and conspiring in violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act by making the General Paper Company the common sales agent of the twenty-three manufacturing concerns. The case went to the Supreme Court of the United States, where the Government obtained a decree which not only dissolved the Trust, but prohibited the corporations from again getting together, so that to this day these corporations have never consolidated. This case resulted in the decision that corporations are not entitled to the protection of the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which provides, in substance, that no person shall be compelled in a criminal case to be a witness

against himself. This was a most important decision, as it enabled the Government to call officers of corporations as witnesses without giving the corporations immunity.

Six months after the Paper Trust decision Mr. Kellogg took up the prosecution of the Standard Oil Company. The complaint was directed against seven individuals, the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, which is the principal and at least the foster parent company of the organization, and seventy subordinate corporations and partnerships. After nearly three years of slow progress, the case was decided last month. The result was a most complete victory for the Government. The Supreme Court has yet to pass upon the case; but the decision of the lower courts, given unanimously and without shadow of qualification, is enough to constitute a big triumph for the Government's chief prosecutor in the case.

Mr. Kellogg has been for forty-four years a resident of Minnesota, though he was born at Potsdam, New York. He has a large private practice in St. Paul, much of which is corporation work. He takes an active interest in politics, though he has not been, except in the prosecution of these two cases, an office-holder.

He was elected a Delegate to the Republican National Convention of 1904 and a member of the National Committee. He was also a Delegate at large from Minnesota to the National Convention of 1908, and in that year was re-elected to the National Committee. He is a close personal friend of President Roosevelt, who often consulted him on matters pertaining to the regulation of corporations and on other subjects. He was one of the principal advocates of President Taft's nomination and one of his close personal advisers. He spent two weeks with Mr. Taft at Hot Springs during the preparation of his speech of acceptance and the preparation for his campaign.

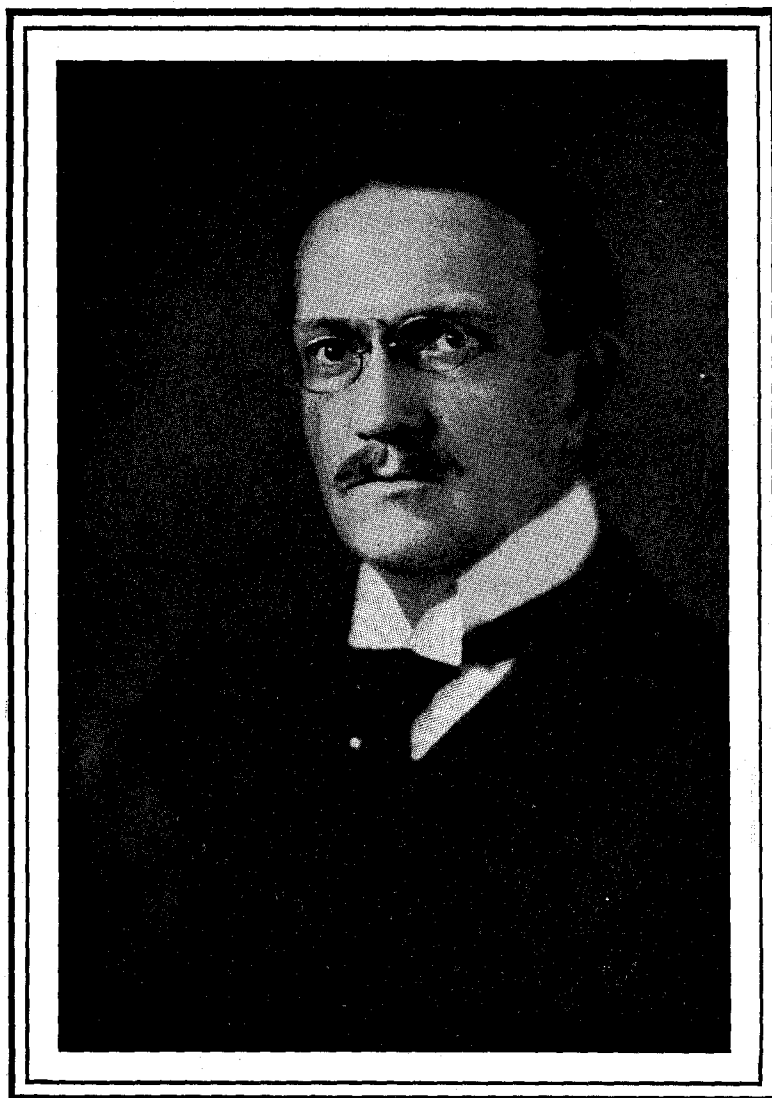
The Standard Oil prosecutor is very fond of outdoor life, particularly of golf and horseback-riding, and is an enthusiastic motorist. In fact, that untiring energy which is the admiration and despair of all who know him is largely the result of his ability to throw down work at the close of the afternoon and indulge with a care-free mind in his favorite recreations.

### A Real Civil Servant

In his "American Notes," written twenty years ago, Mr. Rudyard Kipling expresses, through the mouth of one of his fellow-travelers, the opinion that American political life is a festering mass of sordid and selfish corruption; that public office-holders are simply feeders at the public trough; that true patriotism, which is a love of country so strong that the civilian will make personal sacrifices for the common welfare, does not exist in the United States. Whatever justification there may have been for this view twenty years ago, the career of such a civil official as Mr. Clark Williams, the new Comptroller of the State of New York, is a shining indication that if Mr. Kipling should express such a view to-day

it would be because he was hopelessly unable to understand the spirit of real civic service which is actuating thousands of officials in Washington, in the various States, in an increasing number of cities, and in the Philippines, Porto Rico, and our other Territorial dependencies. It is rarely safe to measure the service which men do the community by a money standard, but some of the salary statistics connected with Mr. Williams's work as an office-holder are so significant that they ought to be quoted.

Two years ago Mr. Williams was Vice-President of the Columbia Trust Company, of New York City, with a salary of about \$12,000 a year; Governor Hughes appointed him Superintendent of Banks, and he accepted the office, although he gave up his Trust Company salary for a salary of \$7,000 a year; this autumn Governor Hughes, needing his services in a larger field, appointed him State Comptroller. It was a promotion in responsibility, but it involved a reduction of salary to \$6,000 a year. As Bank Superintendent he had supervision of 884 financial institutions in the State of New York, whose total resources were three billions of dollars. His administration of the department resulted in the creation of a feeling of enthusiasm on the part of his subordinates, for he possesses the faculty of attracting men and stimulating them in their work. This was shown when he induced Mr. E. T. Perine to accept appointment as his deputy, thereby giving up a \$12,000 position for one with a salary of \$5,000. One of the most difficult and most successful cases which Mr. Williams had to deal with as Bank Superintendent was the liquidation of the Binghamton Trust Company. The rapidity of settlement was very much greater and the expense very much less than had been habitual previous to Mr. Williams's régime. Mr. A. W. Hudson, who was an assistant of Mr. Williams during this liquidation, has accepted an appointment in the Comptroller's office at Comptroller Williams's request, giving up a salary of \$4,000 a year for one of \$2,700. Corruption is so often exhibited in dollars and cents that it is cheering to find that a genuine patriotism may also be exhibited in dollars and cents.

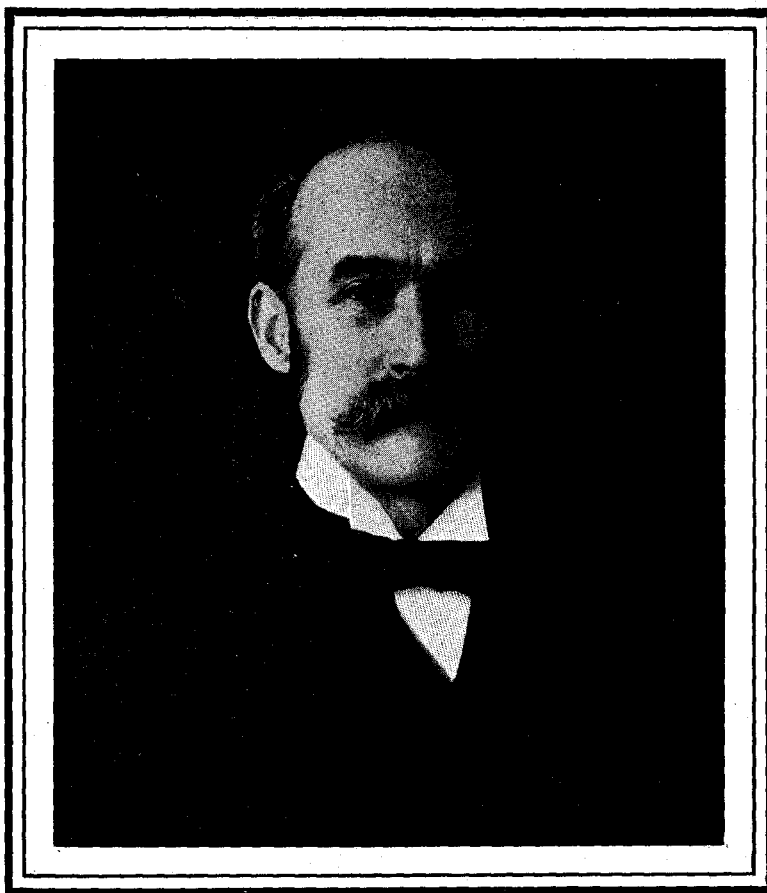


CLARK WILLIAMS

Mr. Williams is thirty-nine years old, a grandson of Myron H. Clark (a former Governor of New York State), a son of Captain George N. Williams, for many years a banker in Canandaigua; a graduate of Williams College of the class of 1892; in business a graduate of the First National Bank, of the New York Guarantee and Indemnity Company, of the United States Mortgage and Trust Company, and of the Columbia Trust Company, all of New York City. He is President of the National Association of State Bank Supervisors and a trustee of Will-

iams College and of the Teachers College of the City of New York. He is not interested in party politics, nor has he ever been ambitious to hold political office; but he is greatly interested in banking, a form of industry of the utmost importance and value to the well-being of society in both its private and public aspects; and in going into the service of the State as a banking expert he is, like all other public officers of his caliber, performing a patriotic duty just as surely as if in time of war he had enlisted in the military service of his country.





LORD LANSDOWNE

### The Champion of the Lords

The Marquess, or Marquis, of Lansdowne is a capital representative of Conservative England in general and of the landed lords in particular. Henry Charles Keith Petty-Fitzmaurice was born in 1845. His ancestors hundreds of years ago were Barons, then Earls, of Kerry. The first Marquis of Lansdowne was a distinguished Minister under George III; the third Marquis was also a noted statesman. The present Lord Lansdowne is the fifth Marquis. Lansdowne House is a great pile in Berkeley Square, in the West End of London. He has country houses in England, Scotland, and Ireland. His English seat is at Bowood Park, a vast estate in the county of Wiltshire, of which the present Marquis has been Lord Lieutenant. His Scotch estate bears the name Meikleour, and is in Perth-

shire; his Irish estate is called Derreen, and is in County Kerry. Lord Lansdowne owns not far from a hundred and fifty thousand acres. He is thus a great landlord. He is also a great political figure. When still a young man, he became successively a Lord of the Treasury, Under Secretary for War, and Under Secretary for India. In 1883 he was made Governor-General of Canada, and held that office for five years, leaving it to assume the Viceroyalty of India, which he also held for five years. From 1895 to 1900 he was Secretary for War in the Salisbury Cabinet, and from 1900 to 1905 Foreign Secretary. In all these positions, but especially the last, Lord Lansdowne obtained an international reputation for probity, straightforwardness, and ability. When, in 1904, there was sudden tension between England and Russia, because of the firing by Russian war-ships

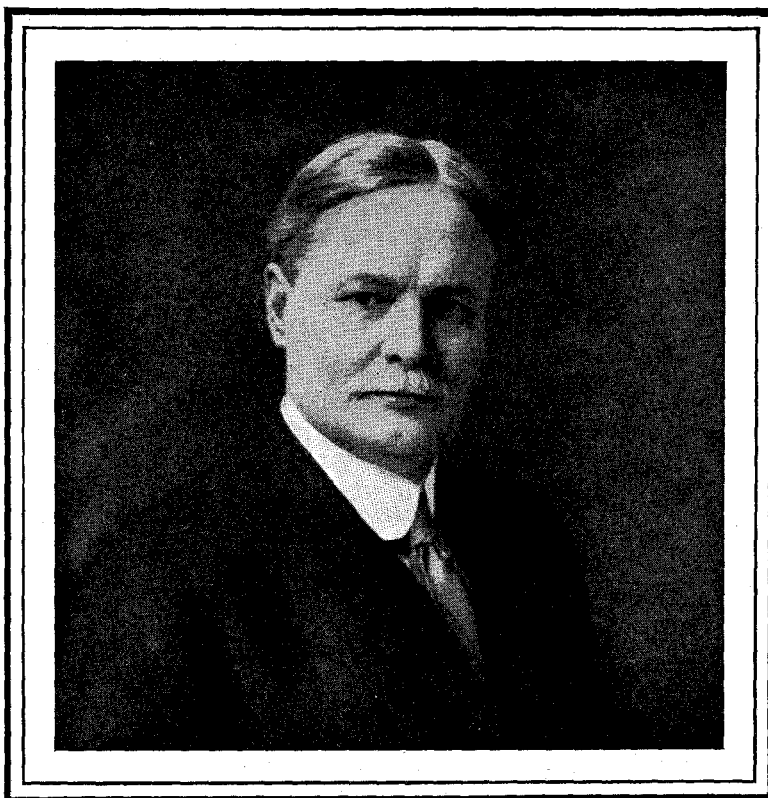
on English fishing-smacks in the North Sea, Lord Lansdowne handled the case for England with exemplary tact. Not an eloquent orator, not even a man of pronounced magnetism, his plea for peace and arbitration at the Lord Mayor's dinner of that year at the London Guildhall is worthy of a place in the annals of the history of international law. The Marquis prefaced his remarks by saying, "That great statesman John Hay recently remarked that war was the most fallacious and futile of human follies." So aroused was public feeling against Russia that only a dead silence greeted the speaker's question, "Could we have done better than get full apology and compensation and leave the question of facts to an international tribunal with a guaranty of punishment of any who might be found guilty?" But Lord Lansdowne was not to be deterred in his policy of international good will. In words which should always find a grateful echo in America, he later informed the country that "Mr. Choate walked into my room yesterday and asked if we would sign an arbitration treaty with the United States. Simultaneously I received from President Roosevelt, whom we all must congratulate, a message inviting us to participate in a second international peace conference at The Hague. It is needless to say that the invitation has not been refused; only, we have reserved to ourselves the right to consider what subjects should be discussed. We hesitated not a moment in informing America that we were ready to participate and in wishing President Roosevelt God-speed in this undertaking."

As Viceroy and as Foreign Secretary Lord Lansdowne undoubtedly earned a reputation both as administrator and diplomatist. It is too early to say how history will regard him as a legislator. It would be wiser to withhold judgment until the present constitutional crisis passes into history. That crisis was provided by the rejection by the House of Lords of the financial budget providing for new taxation passed by the House of Commons. In a total vote of over six hundred peers, if all the Lords voted, and in an actual vote of 475, the Marquis of Lansdowne obtained a negative vote of

350 on the question as to whether the House of Lords should have the power to reject bills of supply when such bills contain legislation already rejected by the Lords on matters about which, he contended, their right to reject is uncontested. This majority vote, however, was due not so much to the Lansdowne leadership as to the traditional position of the Lords themselves. Let no one think that because Lord Lansdowne's resolution prevailed, either he will be the next Premier or the House of Lords will be abolished. To most Americans the action of the House of Lords may seem a tactical blunder, but it will serve a good cause if it leads to the reformation of that house and the gradual disappearance of hereditary privilege. Any elective assembly, however, would form a fit setting for the energies and ability of such an administrator and constitutionalist as is the Marquis of Lansdowne.

### A Vigorous Peacemaker

The acceptance of the office of Minister to China by William James Calhoun, of Chicago, takes from President Taft the burden of perhaps his most important diplomatic appointment. Certainly, with his deep interest and long experience in Far Eastern affairs, Mr. Taft has regarded the selection of a Minister to China as second to none in interest among diplomatic changes. In prestige the Ambassadorships to England, Germany, and France still stand at the head of the list, but in actual work required and in consequent influence of such work on three continents—America, Asia, and Europe—our representative in China has before him a task not only second to none, but greater than any. For, as conditions are now in Manchuria, where in the north Russia is claiming concessions amounting to practical municipal sovereignties, and where in the south Japan is acting so aggressively as to arouse sharp criticism, our Minister to China must needs be, in a sense, our representative to three Powers. His course, therefore, will affect the Cabinets of St. Petersburg and Tokyo as well as that at Peking. Surely he should be made an Ambassador, and it is more than probable that he will be. William



COPYRIGHT 1909 BY MOFFETT STUDIO, CHICAGO

WILLIAM JAMES CALHOUN

James Calhoun is to undertake the task of maintaining American ascendancy in China, an ascendancy established by John Hay when Secretary of State. The new Minister is the type of man who appealed to Mr. Hay and to Mr. Hay's chief, President McKinley. With the last named Mr. Calhoun held intimate relations. Born in Pittsburgh sixty-one years ago, he moved in early youth to Poland, Ohio, and became a student in Union Seminary. He also became a friend of Major William McKinley, whose family resided there. Major McKinley had lately returned from the Civil War, and was then finishing his law studies preparatory to entering upon practice. The two young men were members of the same debating society and literary club, and absorbed learning from the same books. They had similar professional ambitions and they liked each other. Each wanted to do a good turn for the other.

Mr. Calhoun's chance came when Major McKinley's name was mentioned in con-

nection with the Presidency. Mr. McKinley had removed to Canton, Ohio, where he began his law practice, subsequently entering upon a political career. Mr. McKinley was specially anxious to enlist in his Presidential candidacy the Illinois delegation to the Republican Convention. But Illinois had a "favorite son." Mr. Calhoun, now an Illinois citizen, had given little or no attention to politics until Mr. McKinley became a candidate for the Presidency. The memory of old associations appealed strongly. An eloquent pleader before a jury, Mr. Calhoun went to the State Convention at Springfield. There was a hot fight for honors. But so gallant was the protagonist as to win his case. Mr. Calhoun had been and has since been known for having little to say except when occasion warrants vigorous speech. His victory at Springfield showed that when such a man does speak, with the conviction of one thoroughly fervent in the belief that he is right, his words carry force.

Then came Mr. McKinley's chance. The

situation in Cuba had become desperately troublesome. The Cuban insurgents were waging a seemingly hopeless fight against their Spanish oppressors. There were alarming reports of the treatment of the rebellious subjects in the island by General Weyler and the Spanish authorities. On the ground of humanity intervention by this country was widely demanded. This was emphasized by the story of the putting to death of Dr. Ricardo Ruiz, a naturalized American citizen, by the Spaniards. What was to be done? President McKinley feared that the reports from our representatives in Cuba might be too highly colored. He wanted the exact facts, and he wanted them only from a cool-headed, far-seeing, careful investigator of trained judicial temperament. These qualifications were possessed by McKinley's friend, William J. Calhoun. Him he chose, and Mr. Calhoun accepted the call. He went to Cuba. He investigated the causes of insurrectionist complaint, the progress of the rebellion, the interests of American citizens in the islands, and the Ruiz case in particular. The report made a special impression because of its judicial tone and its criticism of Spaniards and Cubans alike. It became the basis of the McKinley policy throughout the war. Moreover, during the following months Mr. Calhoun remained in Washington at the President's side, advising him as to shaping the crisis which finally came. Hence, as the Monroe Doctrine might more accurately be called the Canning Doctrine, the McKinley policy throughout the war might, with equal justice, be known as the Calhoun policy.

Mr. Calhoun was then appointed an Inter-State Commerce Commissioner, an office which he filled acceptably, resigning a year and a half later.

In 1905 Mr. Calhoun rendered a similar service to that accomplished in Cuba. There had long been exasperating trouble with Venezuela. It had come to a case of "spanking Castro." But, like McKinley, President Roosevelt was unwilling to act without an investigation from a cool-headed lawyer. Again Mr. Calhoun was chosen. Again he went to the region of the Caribbean Sea. Again he patiently investigated conditions, not so patent or lurid as those in Cuba, but compli-

cated by a labyrinth of double dealing. Not only were Venezuelan concessions to the Bermuda Asphalt Company involved, but also the interests of a half-dozen great Powers. The Calhoun report became the basis of Presidential policy.

Such service shows obvious qualifications for further service. Add to this that Mr. Calhoun is a man of erudition, culture, and wide experience as a lawyer, and the country may congratulate itself on the acceptance of its Chinese mission by one of his mental and temperamental qualities. As a corporation lawyer in particular, his training has been largely in the business world. He has therefore all the qualifications sought for by the President: ripeness of years, a great grasp of international law, and a long experience in dealing with large commercial affairs. This combination of business with diplomatic qualifications doubtless appealed to the Chinese Government in signifying Mr. Calhoun's acceptability at Peking. It goes without saying that the appointment gives special satisfaction to the Americans in China in general and at Shanghai in particular.

### The Inventor of the Gyroscope Car

Louis Brennan, whose invention received a remarkable demonstration a few weeks ago at the English War Office grounds, is not a one-ideaed man, nor is the gyroscope car the first invention of his to come before the English public. The Brennan torpedo was long ago adopted by the British Naval Department, and its mechanism has been kept a profound secret. The monorail is not a new thing; but all other monorail inventions have the car suspended on wheels *below* an elevated rail from which it hangs with a low center of gravity. The Brennan car is the first to run upon a single rail fixed on the ground in the ordinary way; and on this one rail around curves and all sorts of zigzags the gyroscope car in the test made in November sped at a great rate, always maintaining its balance, even when the weight was purposely thrown suddenly from one side of the car to the other. This marvelous result was accomplished by the use of two huge gyroscopes, one at each end of the



car, and the mechanical principle involved is the same as that in the gyroscope top; in this plaything the tendency of a rapidly revolving wheel to keep in the same horizontal plane allows a boy to balance such a top even on the edge of a tumbler or on a pencil point and at almost any angle without its toppling off. The car shown by Mr. Brennan in November was forty feet long, weighed twenty-two tons, and carried forty passengers at a speed of twenty-five miles an hour—all without the slightest apparent tendency to leave the narrow rail. It is proposed to make cars two or three times as large, and it is thought that a speed of one hundred and fifty miles an hour can be attained with perfect safety. Mr. Brennan two years ago exhibited a small model of this invention, but the large model shown the other day gave far better results relatively than the little one. Mr. Brennan is an

Australian, is a member of the Royal Engineers' Institute, and has for many years held an important office in connection with the British manufacture of torpedoes. It is quite within the bounds of possibility that his invention may revolutionize railway construction.

### An Admirable Actor

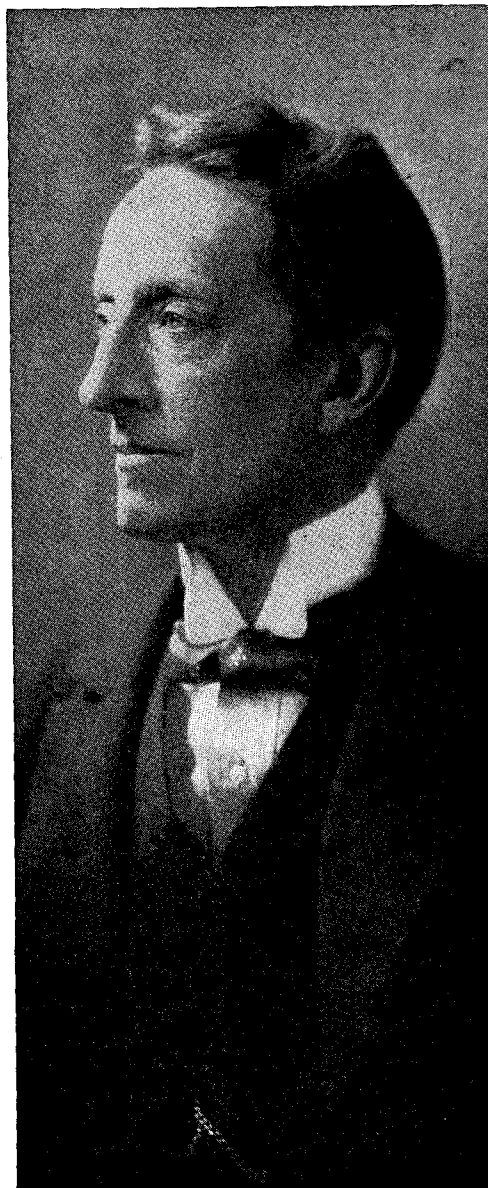
When Mr. Forbes-Robertson delivered Hamlet's "Speech to the Players" at the opening exercises of the New Theater in New York, the universal comment was that it was an admirable lesson to other actors in the clearness and distinctness of enunciation, in the simplicity and at the same time subtlety of interpretation, and in the actor's dignity of bearing and method of delivery. Such ease combined with force is obtained only by long training of the best kind; and Johnston

Forbes-Robertson, who is quite commonly called by dramatic critics "the successor of Henry Irving," certainly has had the advantage of just this kind of training. His father was an art critic and journalist, and, as his name denotes, he is a Scotchman. His first art tendency seems to have been towards painting, and he still paints pictures, but rather as a recreation than as a profession. He has been on the stage for about thirty-five years, and his experience includes a wide range of characters, as well as the business management of theaters. He has been a leading actor in the companies of Mr. Hare and Mr. Bancroft, and was at three different times with Irving and Miss Terry. It was long before he ventured to play Hamlet, but when he expressed his feeling to



LOUIS BRENNAN

Miss Terry that every audience had seen Hamlet and would be bored to death by a new presentation, she said: "Not so. The interpretative artist has always something fresh to say. No great pianist would think of refusing to play a Beethoven concerto because it had been often played before." It need hardly be added that it was through his Hamlet that Mr. Forbes-Robertson secured his reputation as a thoroughly intellectual actor. He has not been seen as much in New York as his admirers could wish, but the impression he made last year in Bernard Shaw's "Cæsar and Cleopatra" was an altogether delightful one; he imbued the part with delicious humor as well as with sterling dignity. This season he has taken the leading rôle in Mr. Jerome K. Jerome's play "The Passing of the Third Floor Back." This play has been called a modern morality play, and has something the same theme as Mr. Rann Kennedy's "The Servant in the House," but was in fact written before Mr. Kennedy's remarkable production saw the light. Both these plays have been called "the advanced drama" and "the drama of the new idea." The exceeding great interest shown by the theater-going public in the spiritual idealism embodied in the one play by Mr. Walter Hampden, in the other by Forbes-Robertson, shows that the public can think and does care about higher things than sensation and farce. Mr. Forbes-Robertson, apart from his adherence to the so-called "new idea" in the drama, has done more than any man of our time except Irving to preserve and illustrate the traditions of finely wrought character-acting. He



COPYRIGHT BY IWMER & DHUHWATER

JOHNSTON FORBES-ROBERTSON

brings to the interpretation of the meaning of dramatic art not merely trained technique and personal charm, but also intellectual understanding and broad human sympathy of unusual earnestness and sincerity.

brings to the interpretation of the meaning of dramatic art not merely trained technique and personal charm, but also intellectual understanding and broad human sympathy of unusual earnestness and sincerity.



# ARCTIC ANIMALS

FOUR DRAWINGS

BY

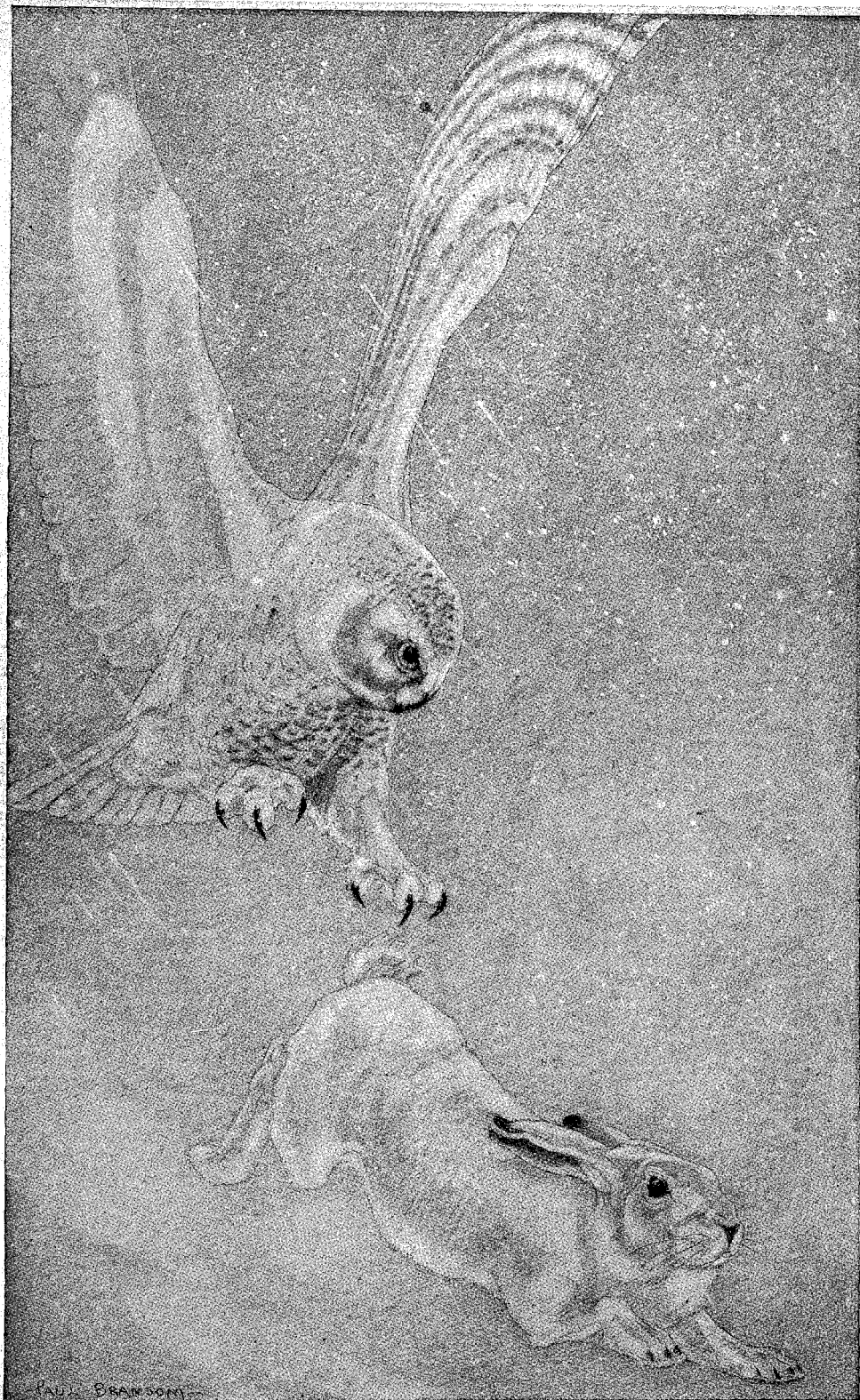
PAUL BRANSOM





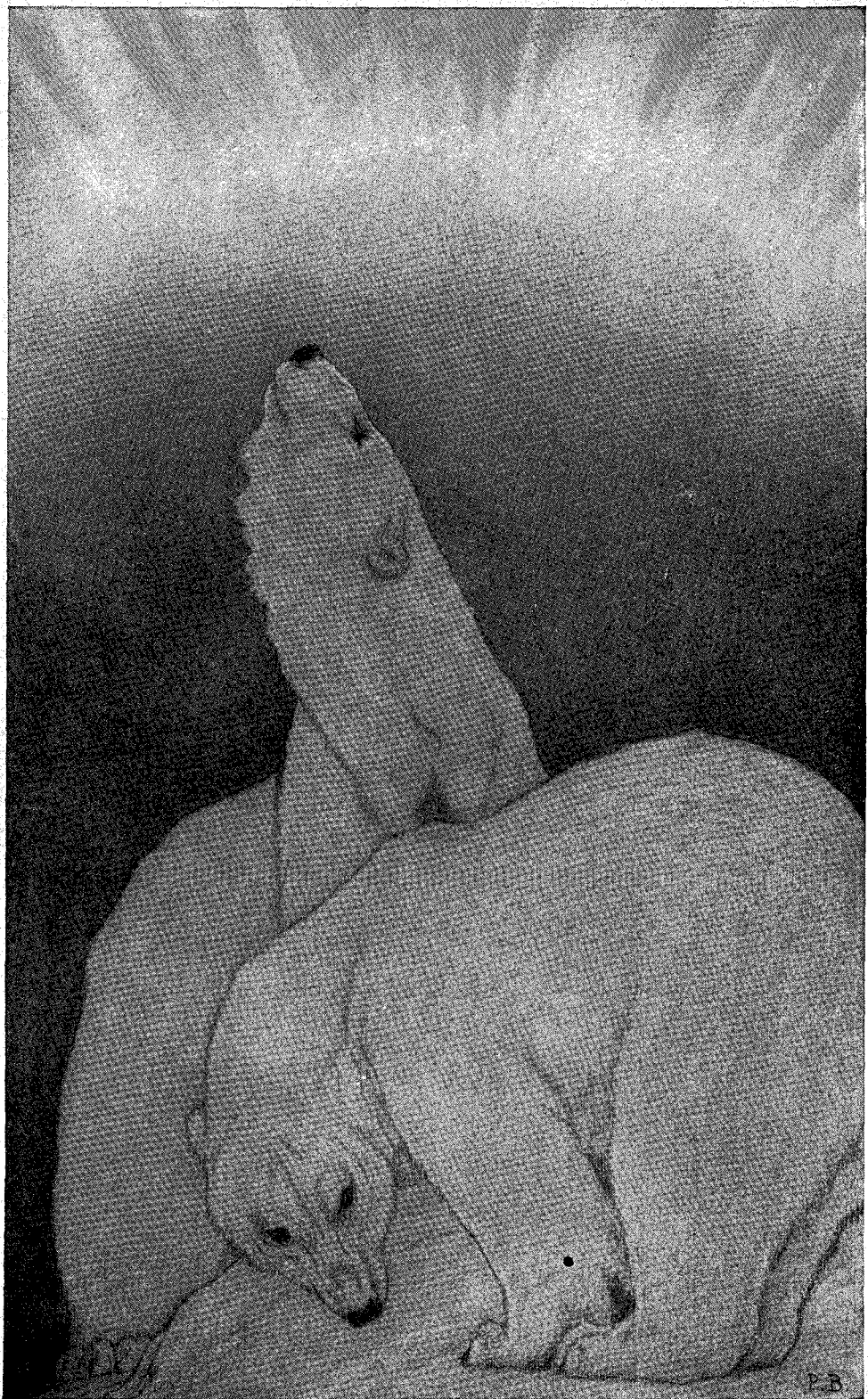
WALRUS





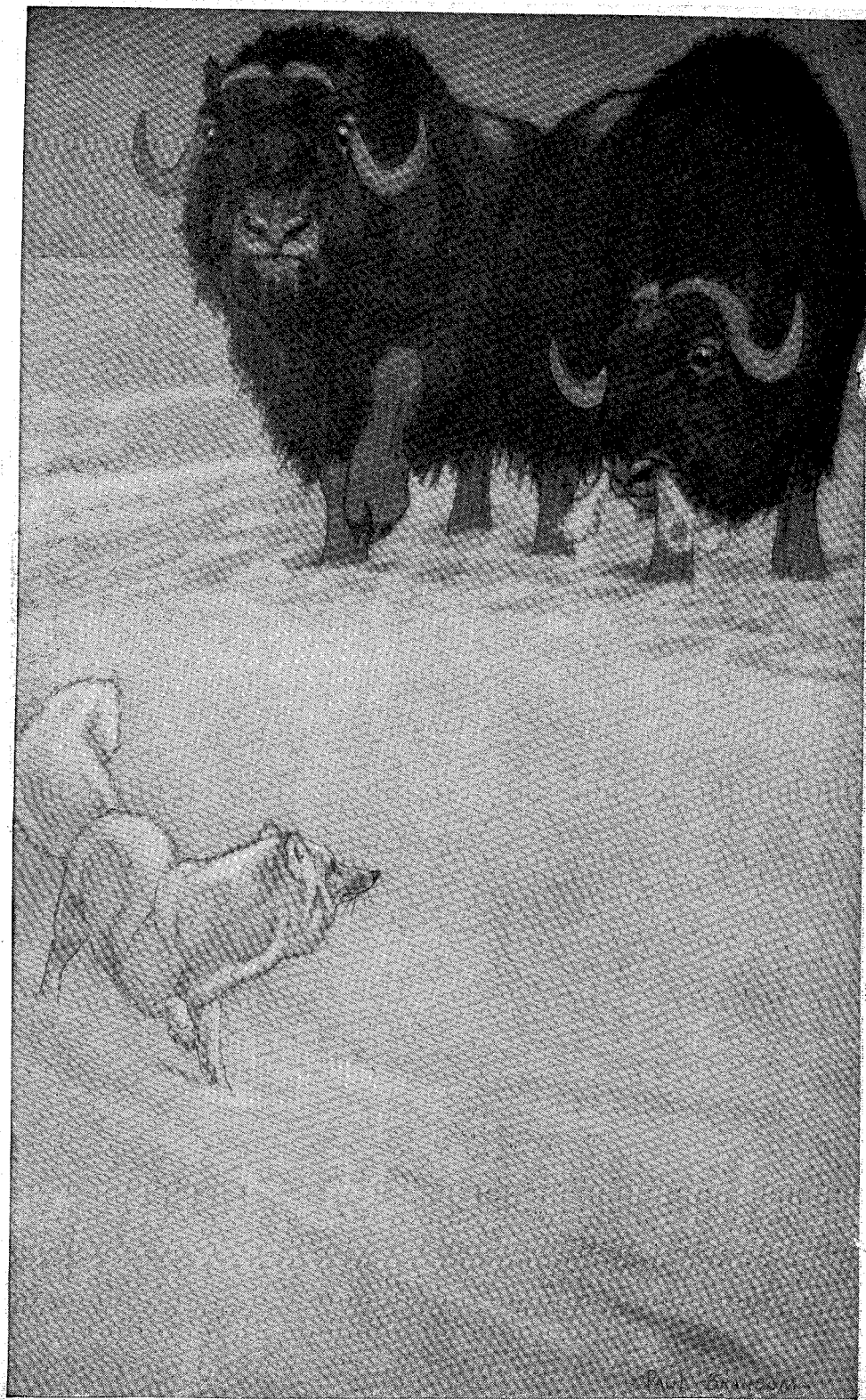
SNOWY OWL AND POLAR HARE





POLAR BEARS





MUSK OXEN AND ARCTIC FOX



# Hans Egede

## The Apostle of Greenland

By Jacob A. Riis

With Drawings by William Oberhardt

WHEN recently the statement was flashed around the world that the North Pole had at last been reached, a name long unfamiliar ran from mouth to mouth with that of the explorer. Dr. Cook was coming to Copenhagen, the daily despatches read, on the Danish Government steamer Hans Egede. A ship-load of reporters kept an anxious lookout from the Skaw for the vessel so suddenly become famous, but few who, through their telescopes, made out the name at last upon the prow of the ship gave it another thought in the eager welcome to the man it brought back from the perils of the Farthest North. Yet the name of the vessel that carried Dr. Cook to Copenhagen stood for something of more real account to humanity than the attainment of the goal that had been the mystery of the ages. No such welcome awaited the explorer Hans Egede, who a hundred and seventy-two years ago sailed homeward over that very route, a broken, saddened man, and all he brought was the ashes of his best-beloved that they might rest in her native soil. No gold medal was struck for him; the people did not greet him with loud acclaim. The King and his court paid scant attention to him, and he was allowed to live his last days in poverty. He had not found what he went to seek. Yet a greater honor is his than ever fell to a discoverer: the simple natives of Greenland long reckoned the time from his coming among them. To them he was in their ice-bound home what Father Damien was to the stricken lepers in the South Seas and Dr. Grenfell is to the fishermen of Labrador.

Hans Poulsen Egede, the apostle of Greenland, was a Norwegian of Danish descent. He was born in the Northlands, in the parish of Trondenäs, on January 31, 1686. His grandfather and his father before him had been clergymen in Den-

mark, the former in the town of West Egede, whence the name. Graduated in a single year from the University of Copenhagen, "at which," his teachers bore witness, "no one need wonder who knows the man," he became at twenty-two pastor of a parish up in the Lofoden Islands, where the fabled maelstrom churns. Eleven years he preached to the poor fisher-folk on Sunday, and on week-days helped his parishioners rebuild the old church. When it was finished and the bishop came to consecrate it, he chided Egede because the altar was too fine; it must have cost more than they could afford.

"It did not cost anything," was his reply. "I made it myself."

No wonder his fame went far. When the church-bell of Vaagen rang, they tell us, boats carrying Sunday-clad fishermen were seen making for the island from every point of the compass. Great crowds flocked to his church; great enough to arouse the jealousy of neighboring preachers who were not so popular, and they made it so unpleasant that his wife at last tired of it. They little dreamed that they were industriously paving the way for his greater work and for his undying fame.

The sea that surges against that rock-bound coast ever called its people out in quest of adventure. Some who went nine hundred years ago found a land in the far Northwest, barred by great icebergs; but once inside the barrier, they saw deep fjords like their own at home, to which the mountains sloped down, covered with a wealth of lovely flowers. On green meadows antlered deer were grazing, the salmon leaped in brawling brooks, and birds called for their mates in the barrens. Above it all towered snow-covered peaks. They saw only the summer day; they did not know how brief it was, and how long the winter night, and



they called the country Greenland. They built their homes there, and other settlers came. They were hardy men, bred in a harsh climate, and they stayed. They built churches and had their priests and bishops, for Norway was Christian by that time. And they prospered, after their fashion. They even paid Peter's Pence to Rome. There is a record that their contribution, being in kind, namely, walrus teeth, was sold in 1386 by the Pope's agent to a merchant in Flanders for 12 livres, 14 sous. They kept up communication with their kin across the seas until the Black Death swept through the Old World in the fourteenth century. Norway, when it was gone, was like a vast tomb. Two-thirds of its people lay dead. Those who were left had enough to do at home. And Greenland was forgotten.

The seasons passed, and the savages, with whom the colonists had carried on a running feud, came out of the frozen North and overwhelmed them. Dim traditions that were whispered among the natives for centuries told of that last fight. It was the Ragnarok of the Northmen. Not one was left to tell the tale. Long years after, when fishing vessels landed on that desolate coast, they found a strange and hostile people in possession. No one had ever dared to settle there since.

This last Egede knew, but little more. He believed that there were still settlements on the inaccessible east coast of Greenland, where descendants of the old Northmen lived, cut off from all the world, sunk into ignorance and godlessness—men and women who had once known the true light—and his heart yearned to go to their rescue. Waking and dreaming, he thought of nothing else. The lamp in his quiet study shone out over the sea at night when his people were long asleep. Their pastor was poring over old manuscripts and the logs of whalers that had touched upon Greenland. From Bergen he gathered the testimony of many sailors. None of them had ever seen traces of, or heard of, the old Northmen.

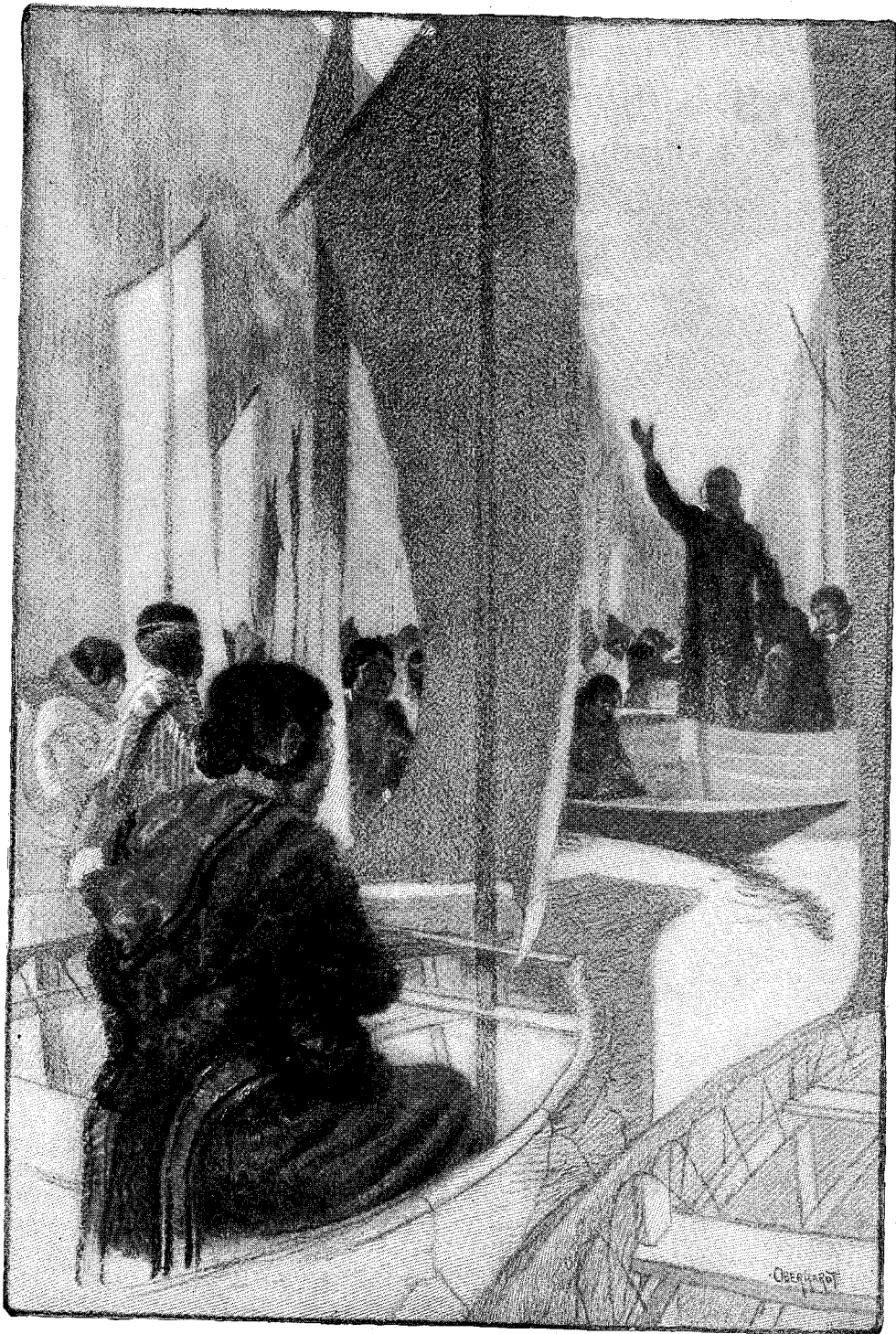
To his bishop went Egede with his burden. Ever it rang in his ears, "God has chosen you to bring them back to the light." The bishop listened and was inter-

ested. Yes, that was the land from which seafarers in a former king's time had brought home golden sand. There might be more. It couldn't be far from Cuba and Hispaniola, those golden coasts. If one were to go equipped for trading, no doubt a fine stroke of business might be done. Thus the Right Reverend Bishop Krog, of Trondhjem. And Egede went home, disheartened.

At home his friends scouted him, said he was going mad, to think of giving up his living for such a fool's chase. His wife implored him to stay, and with a heavy heart Egede was about to abandon his purpose when his jealous neighbor, whose parishioners had been going to hear Egede preach, stirred up such trouble that his wife was glad to go. She even urged him to, and he took her at her word. They moved to Bergen, and from that port they sailed on May 3, 1721, on the ship *Haabet* (the Hope), with another and smaller vessel as convoy, forty-six souls all told, bound for the unknown North. The Danish King had made Egede missionary to the Greenlanders on a salary of 300 daler a year, the same amount which Egede himself contributed of his scant store toward the equipment. The Bishop's plan had prevailed—the mission was to be carried by the expected commerce, and upon that was to be built a permanent colonization.

Early in June they sighted land, but the way to it was barred by impassable ice. A whole month they sailed to and fro, trying vainly for a passage. At last they found an opening and slipped through, only to find themselves shut in, with towering icebergs closing around them. As they looked fearfully out over the rail, their convoy signaled that she had struck, and the captain of *Haabet* cried out that all was lost. In the tumult of terror that succeeded, Egede alone remained calm. Praying for succor where there seemed to be none, he remembered the One Hundredth and Seventh Psalm: "He brought them out of darkness and the shadow of death, and brake their bands in sunder." And the morning dawned clear, the ice was moving and their prison widening. On July 3 *Haabet* cleared the last ice-reef and the shore lay open before them.

The Eskimos came out in their kayaks,



HANS EGEDE PREACHING TO THE ÆSKIMOS IN A FJORD  
The Eskimos gathered from miles around in their kayaks, or skin-covered boats, to hear "The Apostle of Greenland"



and the boldest climbed aboard the ship. In one boat sat an old man who refused the invitation. He paddled about the vessel, mumbling darkly in a strange tongue. He was an Angekok, one of the native medicine men of whom presently Egede was to know much more. As he stood upon the deck and looked at these strangers for whose salvation he had risked all, his heart fell. They were not the stalwart Northmen he had looked for, and their jargon had no homelike sound. But a great wave of pity swept over him, and the prayer that rose to his lips was for strength to be their friend and their guide to the light.

Not at once did the way open for the coveted friendship with the Eskimos. While they thought the strangers came only to trade they were hospitable enough, but when they saw them build, clearly intent on staying, they made signs that they had better go. They pointed to the sun, that sank lower toward the horizon every day, and shivered as if from extreme cold, and they showed their visitors the icebergs and the snow, making them understand that it would cover the house by and by. When it all availed nothing and the winter came on, they retired into their huts and cut the acquaintance of the white men. They were afraid that they had come to take revenge for the harm done their people in the olden time. There was nothing for it, then, but that Egede must go to them, and this he did.

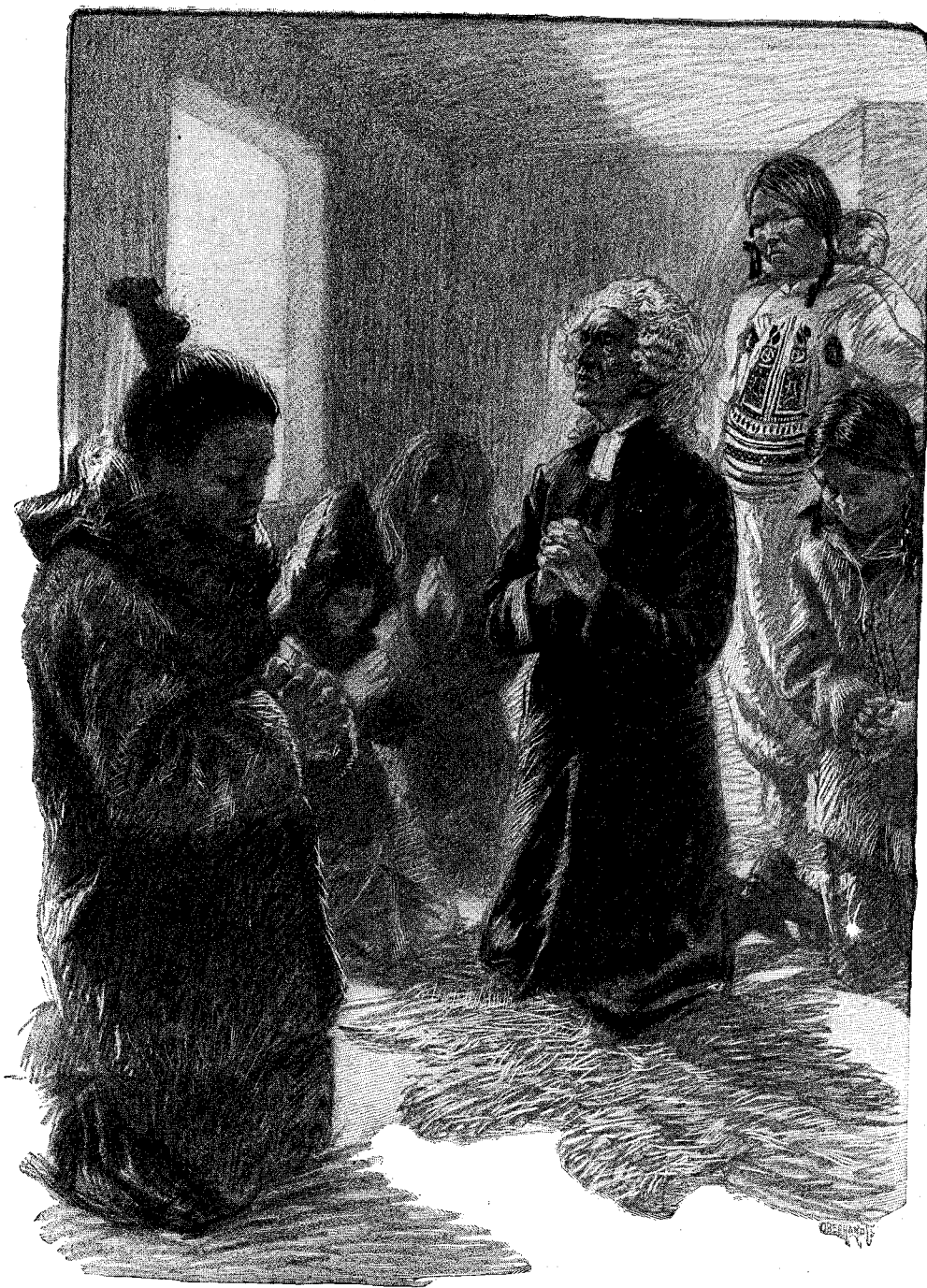
They seized their spears when they saw him coming, but he made signs that he was their friend. When he had nothing else to give them, he let them cut the buttons from his coat. Throughout the fifteen years he spent in Greenland Egede never wore furs, as did the natives. The black robe he thought more seemly for a clergyman, to his great discomfort. He tells in his diary and in his letters that often when he returned from his winter travels it could stand alone when he took it off, being frozen stiff. After a while he got upon neighborly terms with the Eskimos; but, if anything, the discomfort was greater. They housed him at night in their huts, where the filth and the stench were unendurable. They showed their special regard by first licking off the piece of seal they put before him,

and if he rejected it, they were hurt. Their housekeeping, of which he got an inside view, was embarrassing in its simplicity. The dish-washing was done by the dogs licking the kettles clean. Often, after a night or two in a hut that held half a dozen families, he was compelled to change his clothes to the skin in an open boat or out on the snow. But the alternative was to sleep in a cold that sometimes froze his pillow to the bed and the tea-cup to the table in his own home. Above all, he must learn their language.

It proved a difficult task, for the Eskimo tongue was both very simple and very complex. In all the things pertaining to their daily life it was exceedingly complex. For instance, to catch one kind of fish was expressed by one word, to catch another kind in quite different terms. They had one word for catching a young seal, another for catching an old one. When it came to matters of moral and spiritual import, the language was poor to desperation. Egede's instruction began when he caught the word "kine"—what is it? And from that time on he learned every day; but the pronunciation was as varied as the workaday vocabulary, and it was an unending task.

It proceeded with many interruptions from the Angekoks, who tried more than once to bewitch him, but finally gave it up, convinced that he was a great medicine man himself, and therefore invulnerable. But before that they tried to foment a regular mutiny, the colony being by that time well under way, and Egede had to arrest and punish the leader. The natives naturally clung to them, and when Egede had mastered their language and tried to make clear that the Angekoks deceived them when they said they went to the other world for advice, they demurred. "Did you ever see them go?" he asked. "Well, have you seen this God of yours of whom you speak so much?" was their reply. When Egede spoke of spiritual gifts, they asked for good health and blubber—"our Angekoks give us that." Hell-fire was much in theological evidence in those days, but among the Eskimos it was a failure as a deterrent. They listened to the account of it eagerly and liked the prospect. When at length they became convinced that Egede knew





HANS EGEDE TEACHING THE ESKIMOS AND THEIR CHILDREN THE LORD'S PRAYER



HANS EGEDE DOING MISSIONARY WORK IN WINTER

In the intense cold of Greenland winters Hans Egede never wore furs, and in his black robe he would go about from hut to hut giving spiritual advice

more than their Angekoks, they came to him with the request that he would abolish winter. Very likely they thought that one who had such knowledge of the hot place ought to have influence enough with the keeper of it to obtain this favor.

It was not an easy task, from any point of view, to which he had put his hands. As that first winter wore away there were gloomy days and nights, and they were not brightened when, with the return of the sun, no ship arrived from Denmark. The Dutch traders came, and opened their eyes wide when they found Egede and his household safe and even on friendly terms with the Eskimos. Pelesse—the natives called the missionary that, as the nearest they could come to the Danish *präst* (priest)—Pelesse was not there after blubber, they told the Dutchmen, but to teach them about heaven and of “Him up there,” who had made them and

wanted them home with him again. So he had not worked altogether in vain. But the brief summer passed, and still no relief ship. The crew of Haabet clamored to go home, and Egede had at last to give a reluctant promise that if no ship came in two weeks, he would break up. His wife alone refused to take a hand in packing. The ship was coming, she insisted, and at the last moment it did come. A boat coming in after dark brought the first word of it. The people ashore heard voices speaking Danish, and flew to Egede, who had gone to bed, with the news. The ship brought good cheer. The Government was well disposed. Trading and preaching were to go on together, as planned. Joyfully then they built a bigger and a better house, and called their colony Godthaab—Good Hope.

The work was now fairly under way. Of the energy and the hardships it entailed



even we in our day that has heard so much of Arctic exploration can have but a faint conception. Shut in on the coast of eternal ice and silence—silence, save when in summer the Arctic rivers were alive, and crash after crash announced that the glaciers coming down from the inland mountains were “casting their calves,” the great icebergs, upon the ocean—the colonists counted the days from the one when that year’s ship was lost to sight till the returning spring brought the next one, their only communication with their far-off home. In summer the days were sometimes burning hot, but the nights always bitterly cold. In winter, says Egede, hot water spilled on the table froze as it ran, and the meat they cooked was often frozen at the bone when set on the table. Summer and winter Egede was on his travels between Sundays, sometimes in the trader’s boat, more often the only white man, with one or two Eskimo companions, seeking out the people. When night surprised him with no native hut in sight, he pulled the boat on some desert shore and, commending his soul to God, slept under it. Once he and his son found an empty hut, and slept there in the darkness. Not until day came again did they know that they had made their bed on the frozen bodies of dead men who had once been the occupants of the house, and had died they never knew how. Peril was everywhere. Again and again his little craft was wrecked. Once the house blew down over their heads in one of the dreadful winter storms that ravage those high latitudes. Often he had to sit on the rail of his boat and let his numbed feet hang into the sea to restore feeling in them. On land he sometimes waded waist-deep in snow, climbed mountains, and slid down into valleys, having but the haziest notion of where he would land. At home his brave wife sat alone, praying for his safety and listening to every sound that might herald his return. Tremble and doubt they did, Egede owns, but neither ever flinched. Their work was before them, and neither thought of turning back.

The Eskimos soon came to know that he was their friend. When his boat entered a fjord where they were fishing and his rowers shouted out that the good priest

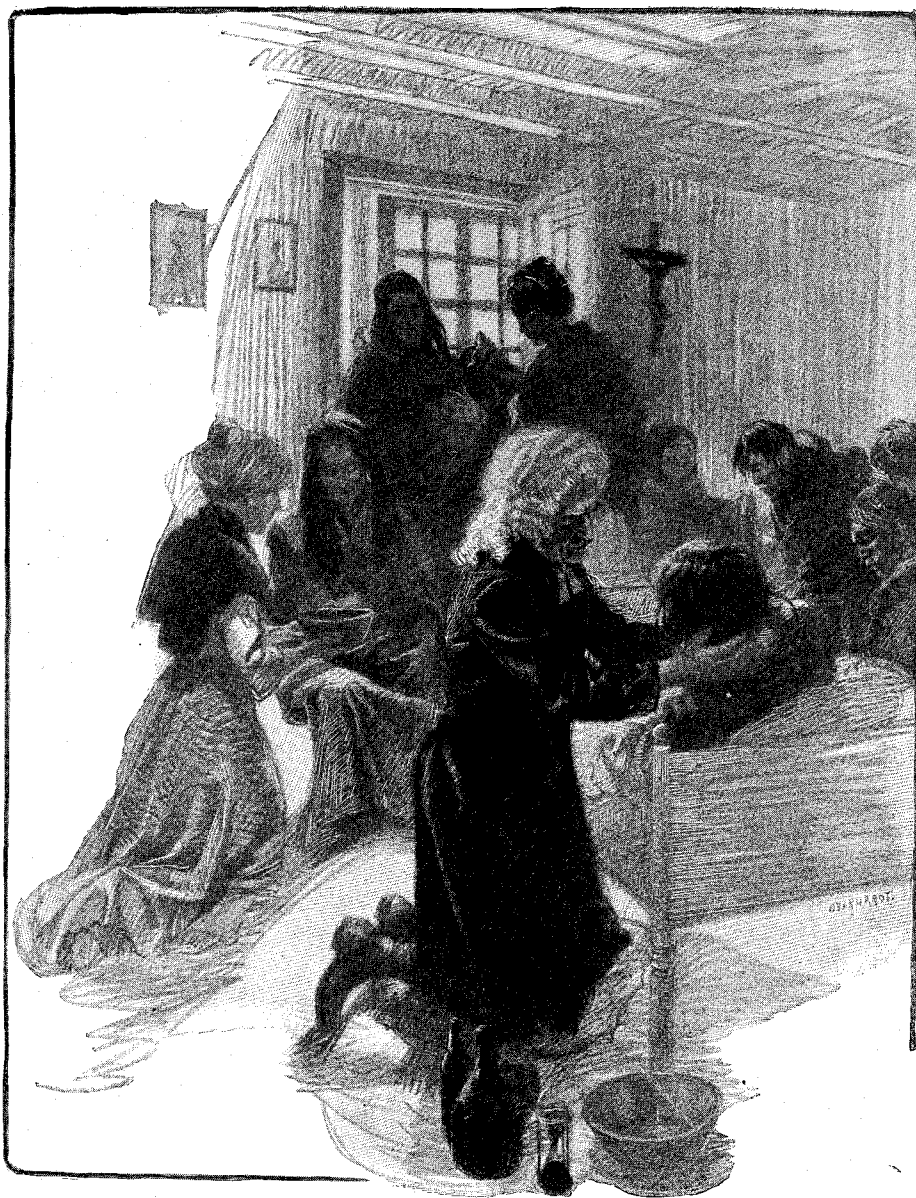
had come who had news of God, they dropped their work and flocked out to meet him. Then he spoke to a floating congregation, simply, as if they were children, and, as with Him whose message he bore, “the people heard him gladly.” They took him to their sick, and asked him to breathe upon them, which he did to humor them, until he found out that it was an Angekok practice, whereupon he refused. Once, after he had spoken of the raising of Lazarus from the dead, they took him to a new-made grave, and asked him, too, to bring back their dead. They brought him a blind man to be healed. Egede looked upon them in sorrowful pity. “I can do nothing,” he said; “but if he believes in Jesus, he has the power and can do it.”

“I do believe,” shouted the blind man: “let Him heal me.” It occurred to Egede, perhaps as a mere effort at cleanliness, to wash his eyes in cognac, and he sent him away with words of comfort. He did not see his patient again for thirteen years. Then he was in a crowd of Eskimos who came to Godthaab. The man saw as well as Egede.

“Do you remember,” he said, “you washed my eyes with sharp water, and the Son of God in whom I believed, he made me to see.”

Children the Eskimos were in their idolatry, and children they remained as Christians. By Egede’s prayers they set great store. “You ask for us,” they told him. “God does not hear us; he does not understand Eskimo.” Of God they spoke as “Him up there.” They believed that the souls of the dead went up on the rainbow, and, reaching the moon that night, rested there in the moon’s house, on a bench covered with the white skins of young polar bears. There they danced and played games, and the northern lights were the young people playing ball. Afterward they lived in houses on the shore of a big lake overshadowed by a snow mountain. When the waters ran over the edge of the lake, it rained on earth. When the “moon was dark,” it was down on earth catching seal for a living. Thunder was caused by two old women shaking a dried sealskin between them; the lightning came when they turned the white side out. The “Big Nail” we have





#### THE GOOD HOPE MISSION CONVERTED INTO A HOSPITAL

Here Hans Egede and the members of his family  
nursed the smallpox-stricken Eskimos day and night

heard of was a high pointed mountain in the Farthest North on which the sky rested and turned around with the sun, moon, and stars. Up there the stars were much bigger. Orion's Belt was so near that you had to carry a whip to drive him away.

The women were slaves. An Eskimo might have as many wives as he saw fit;

they were his, and it was nobody's business. But adultery was unknown. The seventh commandment in Egede's translation came to read, "One wife alone you shall have and love." The birth of a girl was greeted with wailing. When grown, she was often wooed by violence. If she fled from her admirer, he cut her feet when he overtook her, so that she could

run no more. The old women were denounced as witches that drove the seals away, and were murdered. An Eskimo who was going on a reindeer hunt, and found his aged mother a burden, took her away and laid her in an open grave. Returning on the third day, he heard her groaning yet, and smothered her with a big stone. He tried to justify himself to Egede by saying that "she died hard, and it was a pity not to speed her." Yet they buried a dog's head with a child, so that the dog, being the wiser, could run ahead and guide the little one's steps to heaven.

They could count no further than five; at a stretch they might get to twenty, on their fingers and toes, but there they stopped. However, they were not without resources. It was the day of long Sunday services, and the Eskimos were a restless people. When the sermon dragged, they would go up to Egede and make him measure on their arms how much longer the talk was going to be. Then they tramped back to their seats and sat listening with great attention, all the time moving one hand down the arm, checking off the preacher's progress. If they got to the finger-tips before he stopped, they would shake their heads sourly and go back for a remeasurement. No wonder Egede put his chief hope in the children, whom he gathered about him in flocks.

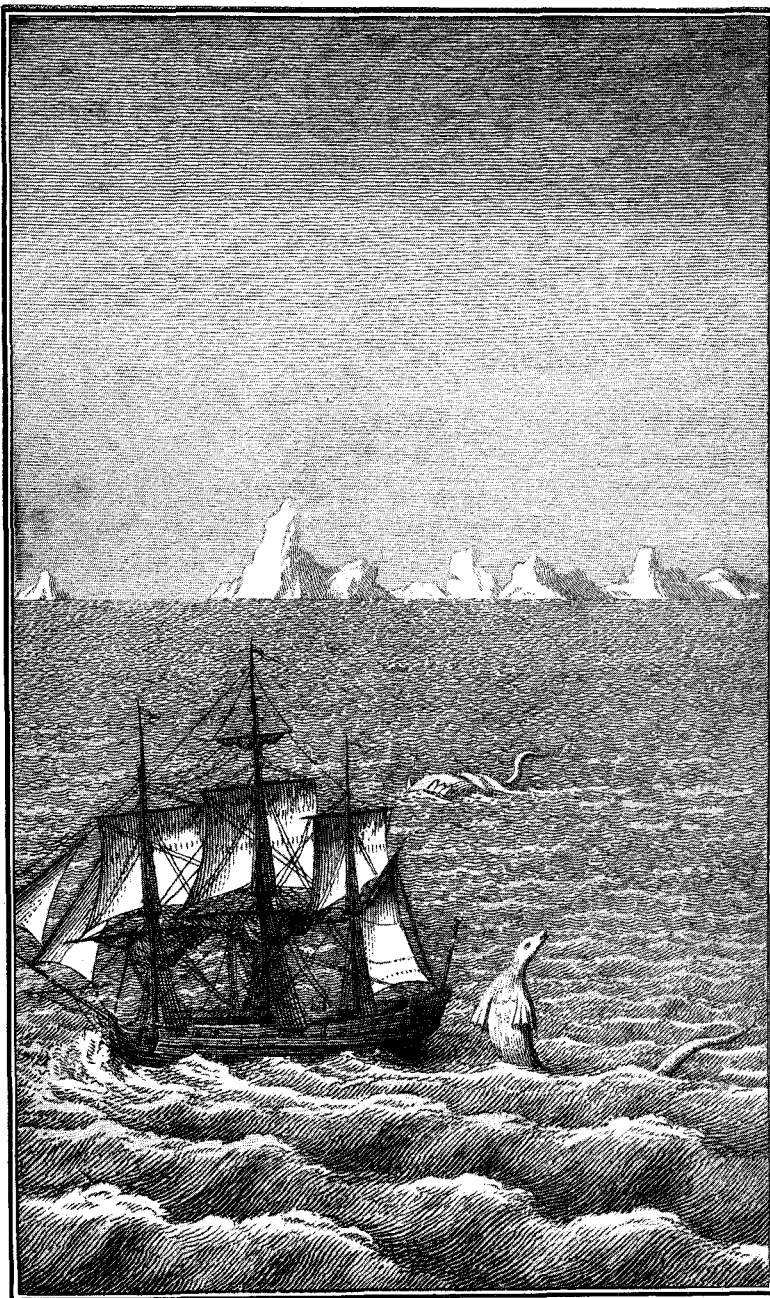
For all that the natives loved him. There came a day that brought this message from the North: "Say to the speaker to come to us to live, for the other strangers who come here can only talk to us of blubber, blubber, blubber, and we also would hear of the great Creator." Egede went as far as he could, but was compelled by ice and storms to turn back after weeks of incredible hardships. The disappointment was the more severe to him because he had never quite given up his hope of finding remnants of the ancient Norse settlements. The fact that the old records spoke of a West Bygd (settlement) and an East Bygd had misled many into believing that the desolate east coast had once been colonized. Not until our own day was this shown to be an error, when Danish explorers searched that coast for a hundred miles and found

no other trace of civilization than a beer-bottle left behind by the explorer Nordenskjold.

Egede's hope had been that Greenland might be once more colonized by Christian people. When the Danish Government, after some years, sent up a handful of soldiers, with a major who took the title of governor, to give the settlement official character as a trading station, they sent with them twenty unofficial "Christians," ten men out of the penitentiary and as many lewd and drunken women from the treadmill, who were married by lot before setting sail, to give the thing a half-way decent look. They were good enough for the Eskimos, they seem to have thought at Copenhagen. There followed a terrible winter, during which mutiny and murder were threatened. "It is a pity," writes the missionary, "that while we sleep secure among the heathen savages, among so-called Christian people our lives are not safe." As a matter of fact, they were not, for the soldiers joined in the mutiny against Egede as the cause of their having to live in such a place, and had not sickness and death smitten the malcontents, neither he nor the governor would have come safe through the winter. On the Eskimos this view of the supposed fruits of Christian teaching made its own impression. After seeing a woman scourged on shipboard for misbehavior, they came innocently enough to Egede and suggested that some of their best Angekoks be sent down to Denmark to teach the people to be sober and decent.

There came a breathing-spell after ten years of labor in what had often enough seemed to him the spiritual as well as physical ice-barrens of the North, when Egede surveyed a prosperous mission, with trade established, a hundred and fifty children christened and schooled, and many of their elders asking to be baptized. In the midst of his rejoicing the summer's ship brought word from Denmark that the King was dead, and orders from his successor to abandon the station. Egede might stay with provisions for one year, if there was enough left over after fitting out the ship; but after that he would receive no further help. When the Eskimos heard the news, they brought their little children to the mission. "These





#### THE ARCTIC SEA

From an engraving made in 1787, showing the sea serpents that were at that time supposed to live in the Arctic Sea

will not let you go," they said; and he stayed. His wife, whom hardship and privation and the lonely waiting for her husband in the long winter nights had at last broken down, refused to leave him, though she sadly needed the care of a

physician. A few of the sailors were persuaded to stay another year. "So now," he wrote in his diary when, on July 31, 1731, he had seen the ship sail away with all his hopes, "I am left alone with my wife and three children, ten sail-



ors and eight Eskimos, girls and boys who have been with us from the start. God let me live to see the blessed day that brings good news once more from home." His prayer was heard. The next summer brought word that the mission was to be continued, partly because Egede had strained every nerve to send home much blubber and many skins. But it was as a glimpse of the sun from behind dark clouds. His greatest trials trod hard upon the good news.

To rouse interest in the mission Egede had sent home young Eskimos from time to time. Three of these died of smallpox in Denmark. The fourth came home and brought the contagion, all unknown, to his people. It was the summer fishing season, when the natives travel much and far, and wherever he went, they flocked about him to hear of the "Great Lord's land," where the houses were so tall that one could not shoot an arrow over them, and to ask a multitude of questions: Was the King very big? Had he caught many whales? Was he strong and a great Angekok? And much more of the same kind. In a week the disease broke out among the children at the mission, and soon word came from islands and fjords where the Eskimos were fishing, of death and misery unspeakable. It was virgin soil for the plague, and it was terribly virulent, striking down young and old in every tent and hut. More than two thousand of the natives, one-fourth of the whole population, died that summer. Of two hundred families near the mission only thirty were left alive. A cry of terror and anguish rose throughout the settlements. No one knew what to do. In vain did Egede implore them to keep their sick apart. In fever delirium they ran out in the ice-fields or threw themselves into the sea. A wild panic seized the survivors, and they fled to the farthest tribes, carrying the seeds of death with them wherever they went. Whole villages perished and their dead lay unburied. Utter desolation settled like a pall over the unhappy land.

Through it all a single ray of hope shone. The faith that Egede had preached all those years, and the life he had lived with them, bore their fruit. They had struck deeper than he thought. They

crowded to him, all that could, as their one friend. Dying mothers held their suckling babes up to him and died content. In a deserted island camp a half-grown girl was found alone with three little children. Their father was dead. When he knew that for him and the baby there was no help, he went to a cave and, covering himself and the child with skins, lay down to die. His parting words to his daughter were: "Before you have eaten the two seals and the fish I have laid away for you, Pelesse will come, no doubt, and take you home. For he loves you and will take care of you." At the mission every nook and cranny was filled with the sick and dying. Egede and his wife nursed them day and night. Childlike, when death approached, they tried to put on their best clothes, or even to have new ones made, that they might please God by coming into his presence looking nice. When Egede had closed their eyes, he carried the dead in his arms to the vestibule, where in the morning the men who dug the graves found them. At the sight of his suffering the scoffers were dumb. What his preaching had not done to win them over his sorrows did. They were at last one.

That dreadful year left Egede a broken man. In his dark moments he reproached himself with having brought only misery to those he had come to help and serve. One thorn which one would think he might have been spared rankled deep in it all. Some missionaries of a dissenting sect—Egede was Lutheran—had come with the smallpox ship to set up an establishment of their own. At their head was a man full of misdirected zeal and quite devoid of common sense, who engaged Egede in a wordy dispute about justification by faith and condemned him and his work unsparingly. He had grave doubts whether he was in truth a "converted man." It came to an end when they themselves fell ill, and Egede and his wife had the last word, after their own fashion. They nursed the warlike brethren through their illness with loving ministrations, and gave them back to life, let us hope, wiser and better men.

At Christmas, 1735, Egede's faithful wife, Gertrude, closed her eyes. She had gone out with him from home and kin to

a hard and heathen land, and she had been his loyal helpmeet in all his trials. Now it was all over. That winter scurvy laid him upon a bed of pain, and, lying there, his heart turned to the old home. His son had come from Copenhagen to help, happily yet while his mother lived. To him he would give over the work. In Denmark he could do more for it than in Greenland, now he was alone. On July 29, 1736, he preached for the last time to his people and baptized a little Eskimo to whom they gave his name, Hans. The following week he sailed for home, carrying, as all his earthly wealth, his beloved dead and his motherless children.

The Eskimos gathered on the shore and wept as the ship bore their friend

away. They never saw him again. He lived in Denmark eighteen years, training young men to teach the Eskimos. They gave him the title of bishop, but so little to live on that he was forced in his last days to move from Copenhagen to a country town, to make both ends meet. His grave was forgotten by the generation that came after him. No one knows now where it is; but in ice-girt Greenland, where the northern lights on wintry nights flash to the natives their message from the souls that have gone home, his memory will live when that of the North Pole Seeker whom the world applauds is long forgotten. Hans Egede was their great man, their hero. He was more: he was their friend.

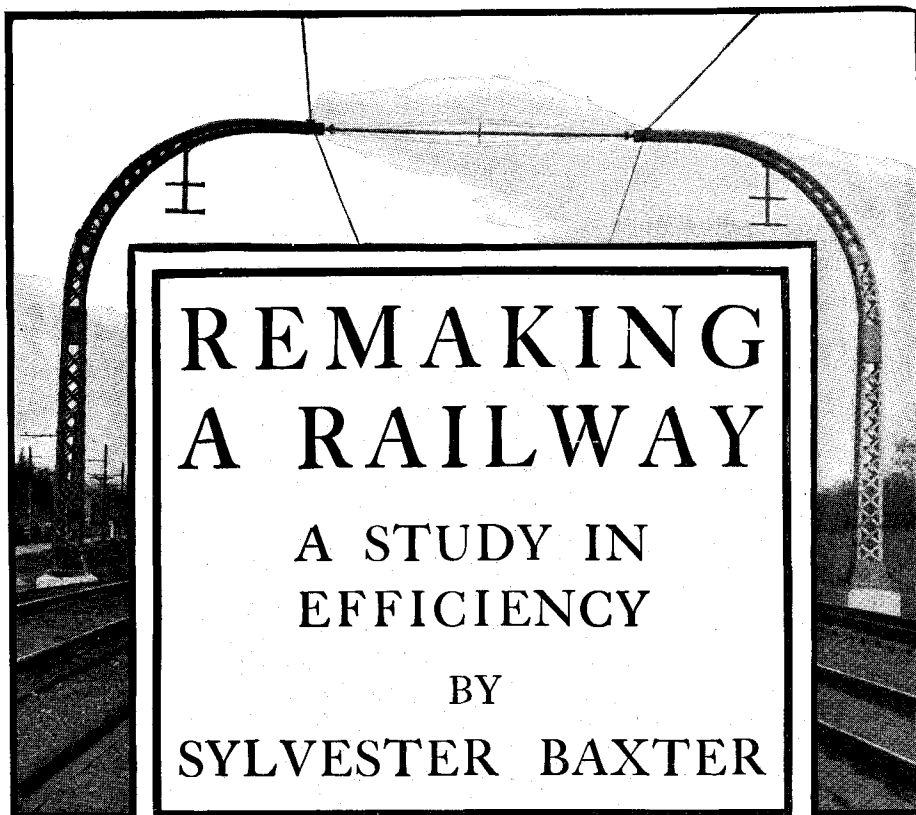
## ONLY A STEP BEYOND MY DOOR

BY JEANNETTE MARKS

(IN MEMORY OF SOPHIE JEWETT)

A step beyond my door I see you stand.  
 How shall I credit those who say that Death  
 Has come this day to quiet your earthly breath  
 And journey with you to another land?  
 A step beyond my door I take your hand.  
 No distance this to any starry heath  
 Unknown to me, where wandereth  
 Your soul grown vast through other life's demand.

This is your poet-face, worshiped by me  
 For eyes a-dream and sweet mouth's gentleness.  
 I do not cross a windy, glittering floor  
 Of space to you; your very self I see  
 On this familiar street. Long-loved, deathless  
 You stand—only a step beyond my door.

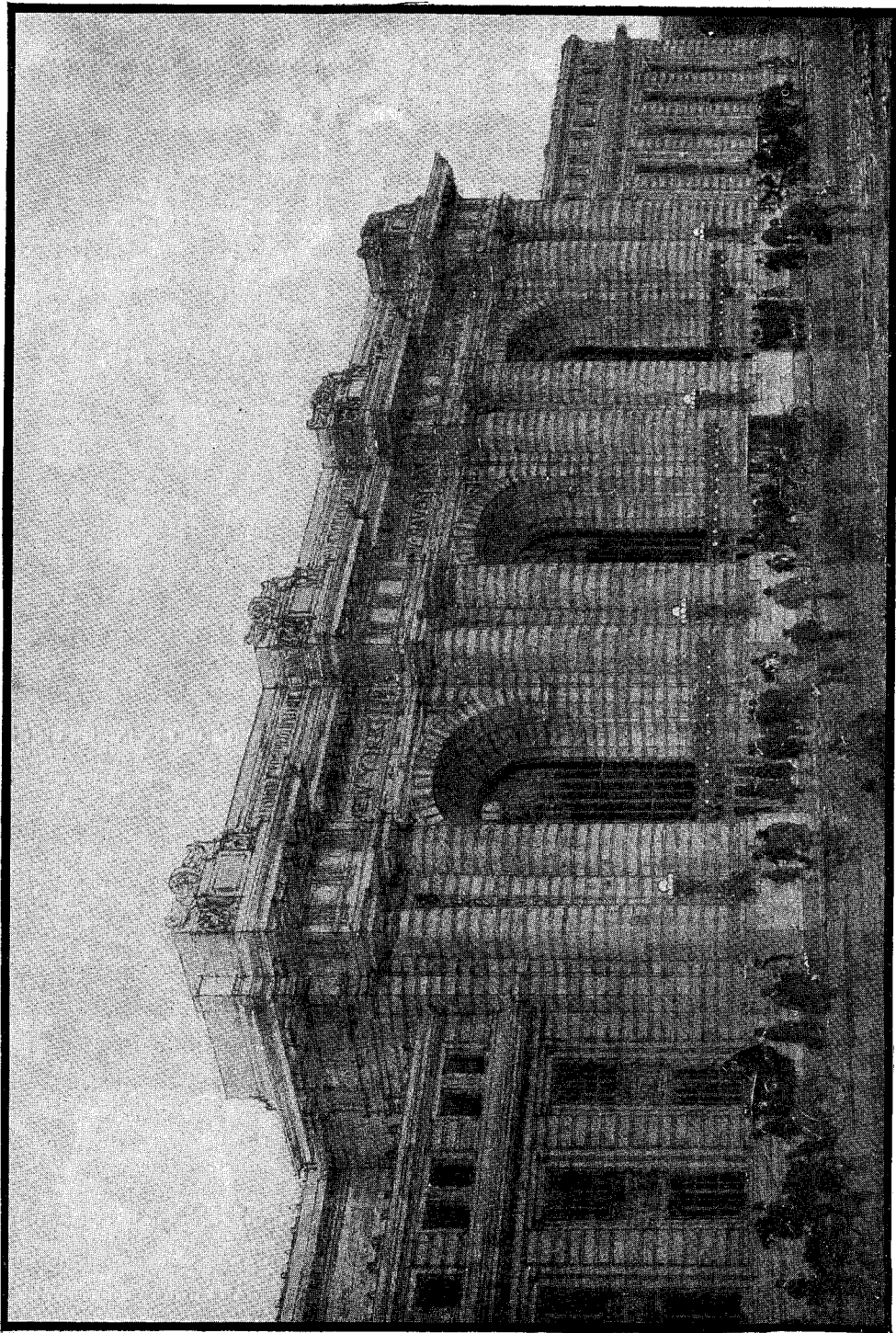


ONE of the most brilliant chapters in railway history depicts the new growth of transportation efficiency in the Great West. It treats of colossal material handled in heroic fashion; huge units welded into a vaster unity at costs that appalled old-fashioned capitalists until it was shown how these prodigal outlays bred manifold returns. Another chapter remains to be told: how the same lesson, learned in the same school, has led to like results in a quite different environment, that of New England.

In compact New England the intensive character of its development had impeded the improvement of transportation facilities along modern lines. The dense population, socially and industrially the most highly organized in the country and demanding a correspondingly efficient service, was, by very reason of its advanced standing, long compelled to put up with a low-grade service. That was because of the many difficulties and the excessive costs involved. In one respect,

however, the ground was prepared for the change. The processes of consolidation and unification were well-nigh complete. These processes might instructively be illustrated in a motion picture which, in the course of a minute or so, would represent in progressive transformations the consolidating activities of many years. On a railway map of New England crisscross lines of divers colors would exhibit the incoherent units of hundreds of independent properties. Then down in the southwestern corner the vivid color of the unit there would begin to assert itself, advancing northeasterly, attacking now here, now there, and tinging the motley tints all to its own hue. In other parts of the map like changes would occur until only a few colors in long lines and large patches would be left. Finally in one swift action nearly all New England would change to one color as it came under one railway flag. But it would be seen that strength had not kept pace with growth. An





THE PROPOSED STATION FOR NEW HAVEN



adolescent boy could not work like a man on the rations of childhood. Big railways cannot be run after the same methods and with the same sorts of equipment employed by the bunches of little railways out of which they grew. These great New England railways had become anæmic. They needed a blood-making and muscle-building tonic: gold in solution. Saturation with money was necessary before they could give satisfactory account of themselves. We shall see how this was done with one of them.

In 1903 Mr. Charles S. Mellen, a man of New England birth and training, to which had been added an important Western railway experience as the head of the Northern Pacific Railway, became President of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad, a system that to-day controls the major part of the railway transportation of the New England States. At that time the New Haven had already become a big consolidated system. "Big" well characterizes a New England railway operating more than four thousand miles of track. Considering density of population served, intensity of traffic, frequency of train movements, and volume of business, this is the equivalent of at least a sixteen-thousand-mile system beyond the Mississippi.

The New Haven holds the record among American railways for the largest dividends declared consecutively through a long period—dating from the organization of the Company as the New York, New Haven, and Hartford in 1873. Consequently the inertia of "Let well enough alone!" had been difficult to overcome. Fortunately, it was seen that not to develop the traffic possibilities of the property by liberal expenditures backed by the highest engineering skill and administrative ability would mean atrophy.

All the ends in view are still far from achieved; even yet in certain fundamental aspects hardly more than beginnings have been made. But the beginnings themselves are prodigious. When President Mellen took the helm in 1903, the capital stock was \$70,897,300. The stockholders had voted an increase to \$77,000,000. Later on, the full \$100,000,000 legislatively authorized was issued. And in less than six years \$116,288,000 was

spent for improvements—a sum more than 16 per cent larger than the entire stock capital. This outlay was upon the railway system alone, excluding street railways and the Company's marine properties.

"Transportation efficiency" epitomizes the broad aim that animated these expenditures and other constructive activities. Potentially the New Haven's field covers every practicable means of transporting passengers and freight. Should navigation of the air be developed upon a commercial basis, the New Haven might be counted upon for the best lines of dirigibles and aeroplanes between New York and Boston. It supplies the commodity called transportation in the measure, kind, and quality that its patrons may demand.

It is doubtful if the head of any great railway has ever before faced such a diversity of transportation problems as became the task of Mr. Mellen when he came back to the New Haven: Vast reconstruction in tracks and terminals; enormous additions to the equipment; readjusting relationships with the trunk lines and formulating new policies in behalf of New England as well as strengthening his Company's own position as a National factor in transportation; developing a broad policy in the local field occupied by the trolley line services; improving and extending the Company's marine lines; opening up new connections with the systems beyond the Hudson; energetically dealing with coal-carrying agencies to safeguard the fuel-supply services vital to New England's industries; great terminal improvements in New York and elsewhere; electrification on a scale that meant revolution in motive power conditions. On top of this came a bitter controversy in Massachusetts over plans for extending the Company's scope. Policies in that State had to be modified to conform with unexpected constructions of law. At the same time difficulties with the Federal authorities were precipitated by what turned out to be strained interpretations of the Inter-State Commerce laws. In the midst of everything the universal financial depression entailed safe piloting to protect uncompleted undertakings for which enormous liabilities had been incurred.

The New Haven is much more than

a railway company. In marine transportation it does a large and profitable business. It practically controls the trolley services in Connecticut and Rhode Island. Through the charter rights of acquired street railway properties in Connecticut it incidentally supplies electricity and gas for light, heat, and power. May not a great public service corporation engaged in generating power for its own service legitimately give the general public the benefit of an economical production gained by wholesale fuel-purchasing on advantageous terms?

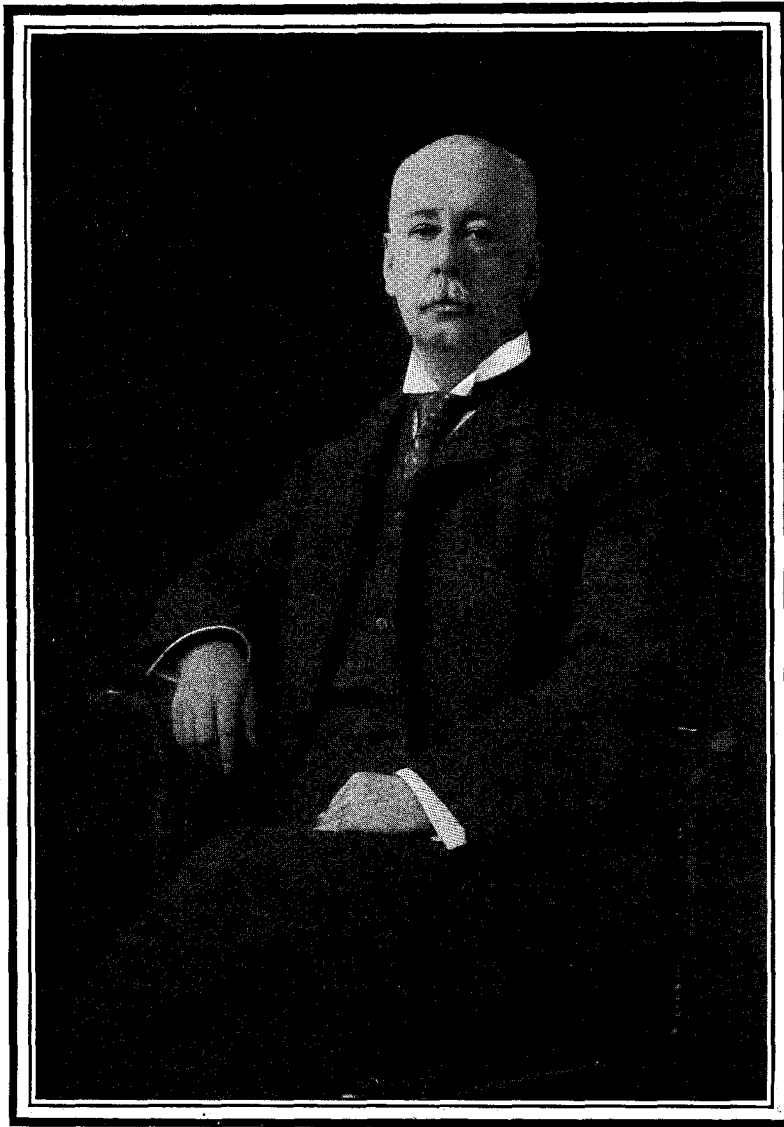
New York City locally constitutes the greatest market for New England industries and is also a chief gateway to the markets west and south. This circumstance has developed an extraordinarily expeditious freight service. A piece of leather one day converted into shoes in a New England factory may the next day take its place on the shelf of the New York retailer. Nowhere else in the world, it is safe to say, is there a freight service to be compared with what daily happens on the rail and water lines into New York from the eastward. It is of vital moment to New England that New York terminal facilities should be of the highest order. With the growth of New York the urban population is spreading eastward and densely building up all the Connecticut shore as the central section of the immense four-hundred-mile-long coastwise city whose coming Mr. F. W. Coburn has recently foretold. The "Shore Line" route is already getting so congested in the service of this population that the opening up of a new gateway between New England and the West and South had become an imperative problem, thus carrying traffic across the Hudson and around New York well to the northward about seventy-five miles from the Battery. A decrepit railway, the Central New England, with big potentialities and slender resources, held the key to this gateway in the shape of the Poughkeepsie bridge. When Mr. Mellen was formerly with the New Haven, he appreciated to the full the possibilities of this route, and he left behind him a memorandum urging its purchase. Fortunately, the Central New England was still in the market when he was called back from the Northern Pacific.

He promptly arranged to buy it, taking the decisive step before leaving the Northwest and clinching the bargain almost coincidentally with taking the head of the New Haven's Board. Nine million dollars was spent upon the new property—over \$1,500,000 for rebuilding the great bridge to carry heavy modern traffic. In five years the Central New England, from a practically bankrupt condition, was paying interest upon its income bonds. It opened up one of the great east-and-west traffic lines.

This first master-stroke of the new President was but an earnest of what was to follow. Here is a magnificent example of railway strategy: In 1906 the anthracite roads were about to advance the rates on coal for New England fifty cents a ton. President Mellen protested, but the other presidents smiled and wanted to know what he was going to do about it. It chanced that a big block of New York, Ontario, and Western was in the market. It is one of the leading anthracite roads and owns important mines. Mr. Mellen quietly secured the stock and arranged with his bankers to buy enough more shares to give the New Haven a majority interest. The next day he went into the meeting of the anthracite roads as an insider and saved the day for New England. No advance was made; consumers were saved hundreds of thousands in their coal bills for that year. Moreover, the safeguarding of New England's anthracite supply has been permanent.

No railway man less certain of his position would have dared take the step that made the New Haven the pioneer in a general reduction of passenger rates. It was voluntary, urged by no outside influences or public demand. President Mellen surprised his directors one day with a proposition to make a uniform rate of two cents a mile for the whole system. He held that it was good policy thus to admit the public to a share in the benefits from increased efficiency and consequent reductions in operating costs; moreover, it was good business; lower fares meant more traffic and larger revenues. Yet he was frank to say that the bare results meant a reduction of income—without allowance for encouragement of traffic—by no less than \$800,000. ‡ Probably no





PHOTOGRAPH BY RANDALL

CHARLES S. MELLEN

President of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad

railway executive ever received a stronger vote of confidence than that implied in the unanimous adoption of this recommendation in face of the risk involved. The announced intention proved a bomb-shell in outside camps and aroused a storm of protests and denunciations from other managements. Yet the measure promptly justified itself. By the time the reduction had gone into effect all over the system the passenger receipts—notwithstanding that the financial depression had

meanwhile set in—had not only overcome the shortage which the reduction meant, but actually showed a gain over the business of the previous year.

Let us look at some of the things done with that \$116,000,000 and more spent for improvements: Upon the all-important stretch between New York and New Haven nearly all the through business between the East and New York is concentrated. Four lines from the eastward and northward meet at New Haven, and

this single stem has to take all the traffic for the rest of the distance. The pressure is of an intensity seldom approached. To bear it the whole line has been four-tracked, every grade crossing has been eliminated, the bridges have been rebuilt to bear the heaviest trains, and the road-bed has been raised through the cities. All this work has been completed. It includes an enormous cut a mile long through New Haven. This has massive concrete walls, is crossed by arched bridges of the same material, and is partly paralleled by a concrete viaduct to accommodate the trolley cars taken from the adjacent street. Trains move more swiftly, more safely, and with greater frequency. This seventy-four mile stretch has several times its former capacity; economy in operation and general efficiency are correspondingly enhanced.

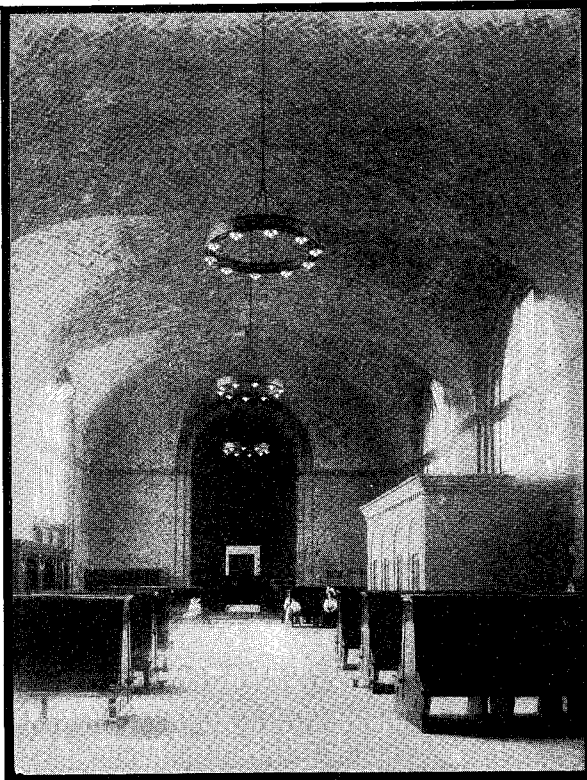
Co-ordinated are the vast terminal improvements for New York City. The Harlem branch, from New Rochelle to the river, has been rebuilt with six tracks—

thus giving ten tracks in all for access to the metropolis, together with a transfer route by water around Manhattan. Two great freight terminals here on the Harlem and on the East River at Oak Point have been enormously enlarged, with augmented car-float and transfer-steamer connections. The transfer fleet here has been increased to fifty-one car-floats, nineteen tugs, and two transfer steamers; nearly a thousand freight cars can thus be kept afloat in New York Harbor at one time. With eighteen piers controlled on the Manhattan water-front, five additional ones lately secured in Manhattan, and one on the Jersey shore, the local market for New England industries has been greatly enlarged.

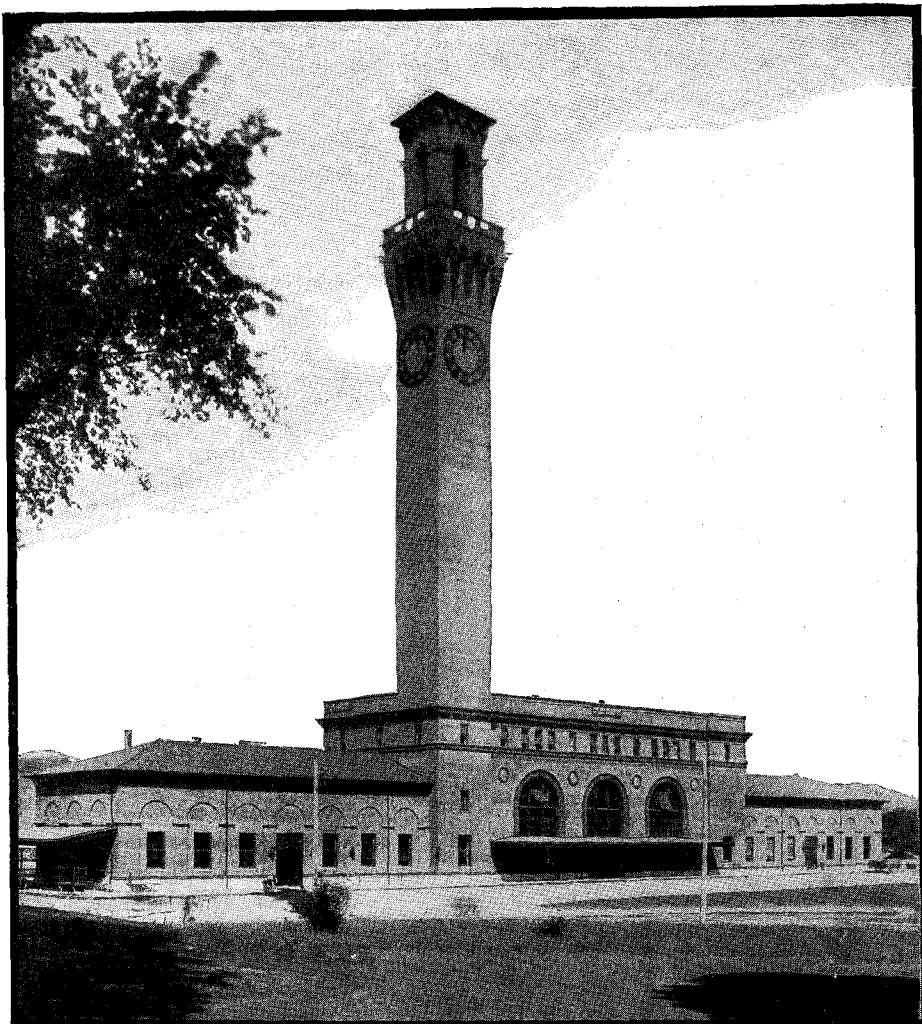
The flexibility of a great railway under modern conditions is illustrated by the way the reconstructed Harlem branch has been made an invaluable feature of Greater New York's transit system. Four of the six tracks provide a service of local and express trains comparable with what the

Manhattan subways give—even superior in the matter of comfortable coaches and trains running in the open. The stations for local and express trains are distributed at intervals much as in the subway. Two tracks are for express, two for local, two for freight. Both urban and the long-distance express services share the express tracks, this being the route for the Federal and Colonial express trains between Boston and the South. All this has been carried out, with the exception of the electrification that awaits the execution of larger plans.

In conjunction with this improvement the projected "Connecting Railroad"—a joint undertaking with the Pennsylvania—is to span East River at Hell Gate with one of the highest, greatest, and most architectural of railway bridges. This will connect with the palatial station of the Pennsylvania by way



THE WAITING-ROOM AT WATERBURY: A LOFTY VAULTED HALL, IMPRESSIVE AND BEAUTIFUL IN DETAIL



THE NEW STATION AT WATERBURY: A GREAT LANDMARK OF THE CITY

of the Long Island tunnel. The freight trains will run around through Brooklyn, thus reducing water transfers to ferrying across the bay.

Electrification has been mentioned. The operation of steam locomotives through the Park Avenue tunnel in and out of the Grand Central Station after a certain date had been forbidden by law. In itself the electrification thus demanded would have been a relatively simple problem had the project gone no further than changing over from steam to electricity for the short distance comprised in the radius of a suburban service. The New York Central took the matter up from this point of view, adopting the "third-

rail" and low-voltage methods, thoroughly worked out in the practice of twenty years. The New Haven's President took a long look ahead, and saw to it that the problem was studied with reference to the ultimate electrification of the entire service between New York and Boston. But on a large scale the operating cost of low-voltage transmission is prohibitory. The method as worked out along wholly untried lines called for long-distance transmission at a very high voltage, with a corresponding simplification of the problem—as in dispensing with frequent and costly sub-stations. Here the locomotives themselves served as sub-stations; the current of 11,000 volts is transformed on



board to a low-tension one for delivery to the motors as required.

The New Haven had been the first great railway to experiment with electric traction, applying, in 1895, the trolley to the peculiar conditions of the summer excursion traffic on its Nantasket branch in the Greater Boston region. Subsequently the conversion of the line between Providence, Warren, Bristol, and Fall River to electric traction was an extraordinary success. This line is operated on a "steam line" basis, modified by the intense traffic methods of "interurban" practice. The flexibility of electric traction as applied to peculiar local conditions was demonstrated in the electrification of two almost useless and well-nigh abandoned lines in Connecticut, and their operation according to trolley line practice in connection with local street railways. Finally, more than twelve years after its first trial with electrification, the New Haven has been the first to demonstrate the entire suitability of electric traction for the diverse requirements of a great railway system. In this final test it meets all the conditions imposed by steam, and does it with extraordinary economy, efficiency, and prompt responsiveness to unusual demands. The saving in fuel and in locomotive repairs alone is so great as to meet the new charges imposed by the huge cost of electrical installation, leaving for profit the new traffic created by greater comfort, swifter and more frequent movement, less delay, increased safety. Experiments with electrified freight traffic indicate economies even greater than in the passenger service.

Characteristically sagacious was President Mellen's dealing with a situation that was proving very costly for his Company. The trunk lines had been imposing upon the New England roads a charge of fifty cents a day for their freight cars after delivery to the latter. This was excessive; with a daily car movement mounting into the thousands, it made a heavy draft upon the resources of New England companies. To reduce this charge was well worth heavy expenditures. So the enormous sum of \$27,921,000 was devoted to building 25,114 new cars for the Company's freight trains and working equipment—an amount more than a third of the entire capital stock of the Company in

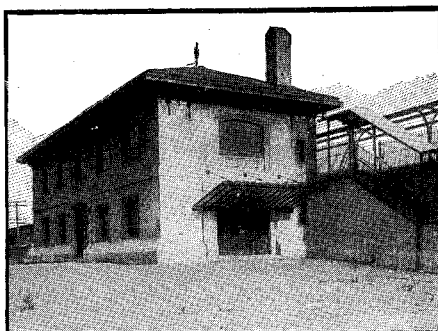
1903 spent for one item! These cars were much larger, stronger, and better than the old ones, and they effected great economies in operation. More than that. When a sufficient number was ready, Mr. Mellen informed the trunk lines that thenceforth their *per diem* charges must be cut in two; his own cars were prepared to take all the freight delivered to him. And the trunk lines had to comply.

The awarding of this great freight car contract showed how handsomely one hand could be used to help the other. A small concern had for half a century been building freight cars at Sagamore station on Cape Cod. This contract not only made it one of the largest car-building companies in the country; it built up a large and flourishing industrial community as a permanent asset of the railway company. That order was the chief item in a total expenditure of \$43,268,000 for new equipment—almost two-thirds the amount of the Company's capital stock in 1903. Nearly \$7,100,000 went for powerful new locomotives, \$6,662,000 for new passenger cars, and about \$1,600,000 for new "floating stock" for New York Harbor.

Prodigious outlays were likewise made for other improvements: The six-track reconstruction of the Harlem branch cost \$10,121,000. But in this exhibit a million or two are as trifles. A modest item is \$3,694,000 for the great New Haven improvement, including real estate. The electrification between New York and Stamford and thence out over the New Canaan branch demanded \$4,276,000. New bridges cost \$7,400,000—bridges so substantial that the swiftest express trains and the heaviest freights rush across the long structures at Coscob, Westport, the Housatonic River, the Connecticut at Saybrook and Lyme, and the Taunton at Somerset without the slightest let-up. The great roll-lift draw at the Connecticut's mouth is a masterpiece of modern engineering. So accurately is it counter-balanced that a comparatively slight electric impulse is sufficient to change the gigantic steel frame structure from a horizontal to an upright position: the equivalent of a sky-scraper 161 feet high erected in eleven seconds! For eliminating grade crossings over \$5,000,000



WESTCHESTER AVENUE STATION



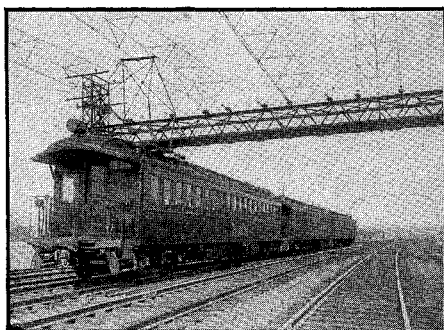
PORT MORRIS STATION



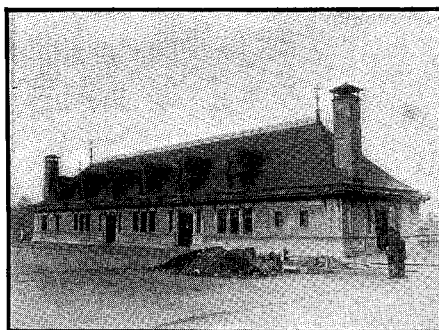
PELHAM MANOR STATION



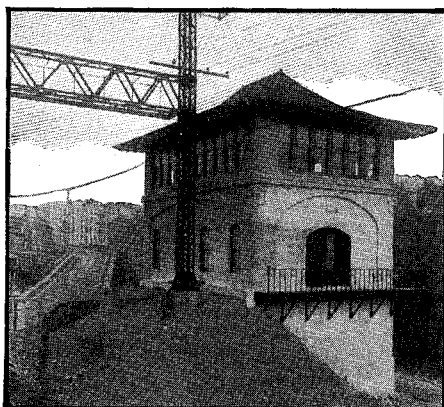
NAUGATUCK STATION



A MULTIPLE UNIT TRAIN



HUNT'S POINT STATION



THE NEW TYPE OF SIGNAL TOWER



THE SIX-TRACK ROADBED

"THE RAILWAY BEAUTIFUL"

was put out. Over a million went for new sidings and extensions of sidings.

Typical was the work in the Naugatuck Valley—one of the busiest districts of busy Connecticut. The increased demands of the numerous industries and of the dense population threatened hopeless congestion. The railway between Waterbury and the Sound was reconstructed throughout. The river itself was moved about here and there to straighten out crooked places and reduce grades. The line was double-tracked from Waterbury to the Sound, and new stations and yards were built. So radically were conditions revolutionized that the reconstruction cost largely exceeded the original outlay for building the railway. At Waterbury alone—one of the greatest manufacturing centers in Connecticut—it cost nearly two million dollars to rebuild tracks and terminals and eliminate grade crossings. This did not include the cost of the magnificent new station, covered by the item of \$4,026,000 for new passenger and freight stations and yard improvements throughout the system. Neither does it cover the cost of over a million dollars' worth of land in the heart of the city, where a large slice of the mercantile and manufacturing district was wiped out. This went into an item of \$13,730,000 for new real estate, principally at New York, Boston, Providence, New Haven, and Waterbury. This wholesale improvement at once reduced by at least thirty-five per cent the operating expenses for the Naugatuck line. A great expenditure for the sake of efficiency means a saving just as direct as that which comes from a reduction in fuel consumption or anything else that cuts down cost.

For double-tracking \$6,720,000 was paid out. The new double-track sections are either along great through-traffic routes or on lines where the local traffic is particularly dense, as in eastern Massachusetts and in parts of Connecticut like the Naugatuck Valley. Traffic has to be pretty intense before a double track is called for. West of the Mississippi few pieces of double track are to be found. Low gradients make the more roundabout course from New York almost due north to Albany, and thence turning abruptly westward, a more natural route for traffic

than the shorter route across the Pennsylvania Alleghenies; so the low-grade route developed by the New Haven by way of the Poughkeepsie bridge across southwestern Connecticut, and thence Bostonwards over the water grades of the Shore Line, offers a course for big traffic movement more favorable than the more direct way across the two mountain ranges in western and central Massachusetts. But the already dense traffic of the Shore Line prevents an indefinite augmentation of through business by that route, while the correspondingly dense population makes it more economical to improve other routes towards Boston than to incur the enormous cost of four-tracking the rest of the Shore Line east of New Haven. Hence the contemplated improvement of the other two through routes—the "Air Line," by way of Middletown and Willimantic, and the "Midland," by way of Hartford and Willimantic—by double-tracking, reducing gradients by means of costly tunnels, and straightening out curves with corresponding reductions in distance. It will pay to do all this as soon as the increase of traffic and the corresponding congestion of other routes justify the great increases in capitalization involved. Towards the realization of these and other large improvements embraced in comprehensive plans that look far to the future the millions spent for double-tracking have been devoted.

The Rhode Island capital is another focus of improvement. With at least 350,000 people, Greater Providence is one of the leading urban and industrial communities of the United States. Here the notable Providence tunnel has been driven a mile under College Hill, at a cost of \$3,560,000. Intended as an important factor in an improved through-traffic route, the new business that it developed for the electrified line between Providence and Fall River at once made it a profitable investment. The success of this connecting-up of an isolated branch with the main line indicates similar results from realizing like possibilities at Fall River, where the line from New Bedford comes to a dead end at the top of bluff-like heights several score of feet above the main line and some distance away. The projected tunnel here will give close communication



between the two great textile centers, together with the possibility of better train connections between the Fall River boats and the attractive summer resorts of Buzzards Bay and Cape Cod.

A long list of miscellaneous improvements made upon the New Haven system during this epochal period of less than six years rounds out the total of \$116,288,000 with a formidable \$6,831,000 for sundries—much of it for electrification purposes outside the huge undertaking at the New York end. These vast outlays are now bearing fruit in expectancy's full measure. More recent returns show that, with large gains in gross earnings, 99 per cent of the increased gross is likewise increased net. Such are the results of well-planned expenditures for efficiency.

With such a momentum all New England must eventually benefit by this great renaissance in transportation in much the same degree as have the communities more immediately favored. A near future will see all the main line electrified between New York and New Haven. Like improvements are in prospect at the Boston end. It may be assumed that eventually the entire main line between the two great cities will be electrified, as originally contemplated.

Meanwhile other great systems in regions of intense traffic will have entered upon like undertakings. This means a tremendous draft upon capital, upon the electric industries, upon industrial resources in general, and upon the world's labor market. Available energy should be well conserved towards these ends. Would not its dissipation upon superfluous and more or less competitive undertakings of the "interurban" type divert to profitless ends resources already sadly needed for the electrification of the great steam lines, and proportionately retard consummations for which the public is impatient?

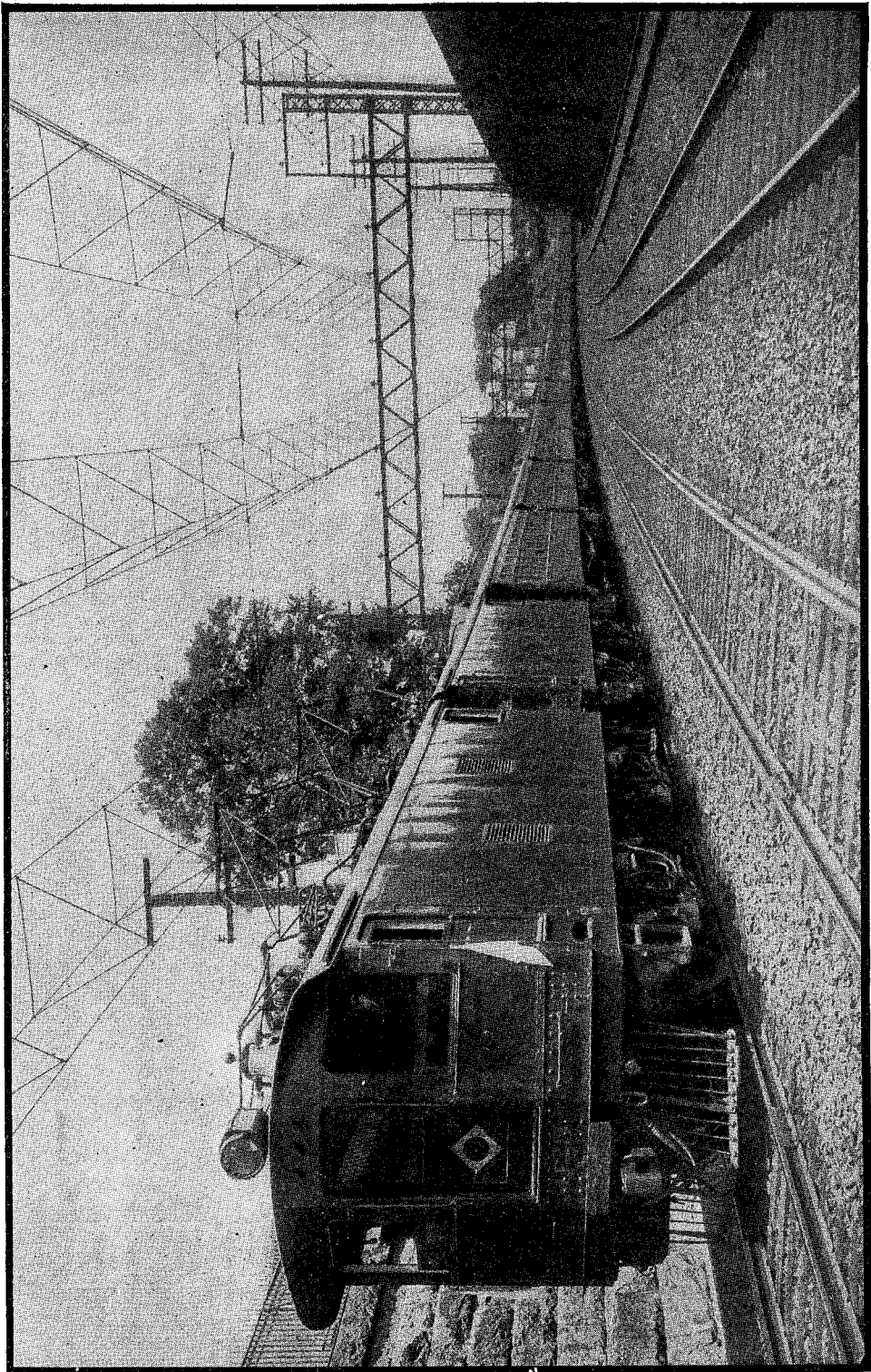
The magnitude of the task in the northern New England field may be inferred from what has already been accomplished in the south. The control of the Boston and Maine, including the lines in turn controlled by that company, has added to the general New Haven system 3,513 miles of line. With the 546

miles of the New York, Ontario, and Western and the 293 miles of the Central New England, we have a total of 4,352 miles of controlled lines to be added to the 2,060 miles of directly operated lines, making a grand total of 6,412 miles for the whole system. This, however, comprises only the primary lines—commonly, though to-day with less and less accuracy, known as "steam" lines. A great secondary group comprises the 755 miles of street railways in Connecticut and New York, the 300 in Rhode Island, and the 52 in Massachusetts and New Hampshire belonging to the Boston and Maine—a total of 1,107 miles of secondary lines. This makes the total for the New Haven system foot up to 7,519 miles, with a track of 10,691 miles in the primary system alone. If we add to this the 1,850 miles of water routes operated, we have 9,369 miles comprised in one grand transportation system centering in and upon New England.

The New Haven ramifies to every spot where industry flourishes, where business thrives. It serves half New England as one great terminal, or switching-yard. There is little exaggeration in this comparison. The Company's rolling stock—not counting that of controlled lines—is made up of 39,062 units. There are 34,184 freight cars alone, not to mention the passenger coaches, service cars, and locomotives. These would form a continuous train over 293 miles long. Such a train would reach uninterruptedly out of the Grand Central station in New York over the Shore Line route into the South Station in Boston and, looping back, out over the Midland division to a point just beyond Putnam, Connecticut.

The ownership of street railways, expanding into various interurban electric routes, is a recent development in the New Haven's policies. All but about fifteen per cent of the street railways in Connecticut are thus owned, and perhaps about the same proportion in Rhode Island. In Massachusetts the same policy had been well advanced when the Supreme Court decided such ownership to be illegal. About 500 miles of street railway thus lopped away was passed over to an independent corporation, the New England Investment and Security Company.





ONE OF THE POWERFUL NEW ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVES OF THE NEW HAVEN ROAD

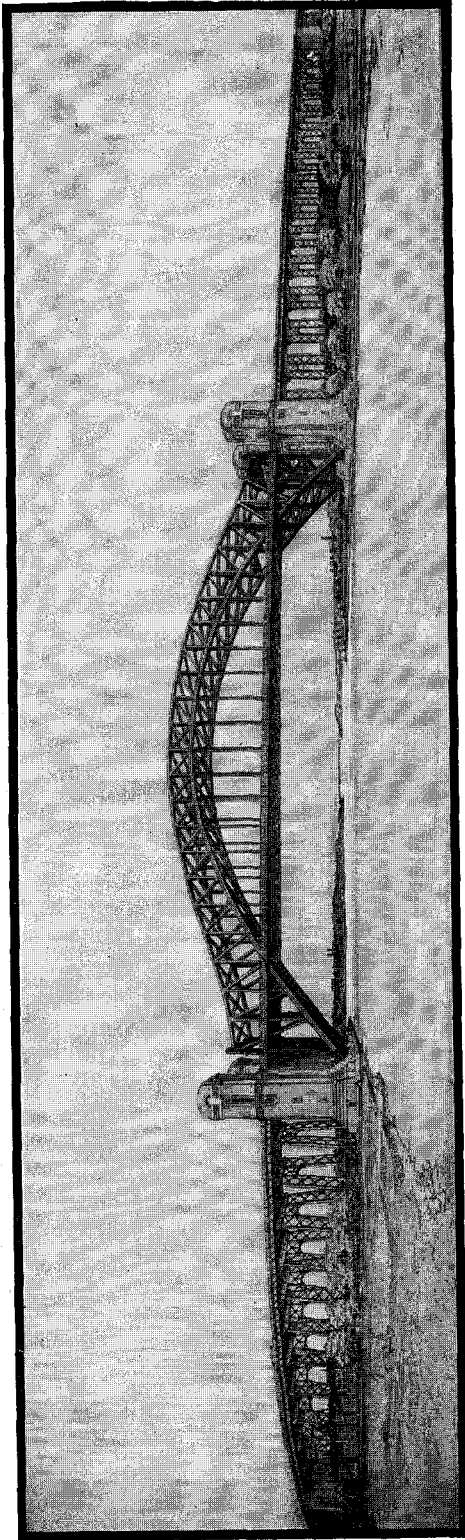


The Connecticut Company and the Rhode Island Company—subsidiary corporations, their stock owned wholly by the New Haven—operate the street railways in the respective States independently of the parent Company except in responsibility to the latter's chief executive. The underlying policy of the New Haven's ownership of trolley lines is that the street railways operating in the territory of a railway system are not properly or naturally its competitors, hence they may best be developed as feeders both to mutual advantage and to the benefit of the communities respectively served. The experience of the New Haven on so large a scale attests the correctness of this view. As a purveyor of transportation it supplies the public with just the sort desired. Locally the trolley lines help develop the territory for the primary system; with cheap fares and local express and freight services, they relieve the latter of much retail traffic that otherwise would have to be conducted unprofitably. The trolley services get the benefit of the vast resources and superior credit of the big corporation, and so are enabled to construct and operate more cheaply. The facility with which the primary and secondary systems can be molded to mutual requirements is of peculiar value. A flexibility is achieved that otherwise would be impracticable. Almost worthless stretches of steam lines between Meriden, Berlin, and Middletown were straightway given new life and high value by electrifying them and turning them over to the Connecticut Company to operate in connection with the local street railways. Another aspect of this flexibility is the easy formation of interurban routes by shaping up various combinations between the primary and secondary systems according to circumstance. The trolley cars at Middletown run from the center through the main streets of the city to the station; thence over steam tracks electrified for a two-mile section; next, taking now to the open fields, now to the highways, they run up the Connecticut Valley to Hartford and East Hartford. Here another car runs through the streets to the station and over an electrified stem of the Midland division's main line—all the while utilized by steam for a heavy through

traffic—and out over the electrified branch to Rockville, thence through the terraced streets of the picturesque old mill town and away across the hills by interurban electric line to the charming summer resort of Stafford Springs. Yet another example of flexibility lies in the sharing of electrified sections between the primary and secondary services. For instance: The Connecticut Company operates electrified branches through the day for trolley service, passenger, and express; late at night the parent Company resumes their operation with freight trains and steam locomotives. The railway company also continues to sell tickets to and from points on electrified lines operated on a trolley line basis. Again, in various places the street car tracks are developing a new utility in taking freight cars to and from factories and warehouses in place of costly trucking. This reduces transportation charges, lessening by so much the cost of manufacturing and marketing. Under separate ownership of the primary and secondary systems, there would be much unnecessary duplication of functions and these manifest advantages would be wanting.

The New Haven's marine service has inestimable value as a transportation factor. Here again we have the same thread of flexibility running all through the warp and woof of the great system. The manifold small units of rail transportation are complemented by the few huge units of the water routes. New England is practically a maritime province and enjoys cheap coastwise transportation. The combined rail and water systems of the New Haven are organized largely to this end. When the entire Old Colony Railroad was reluctantly taken over, only to secure an all-rail route from New York into Boston, it laid the foundation of a dual empire in the transportation world. The Fall River line went with the Old Colony. The consolidation of all the lines on Long Island Sound followed. The resulting New England Navigation Company presents the foremost American example of a naval-like organization and discipline, and a corresponding economy and efficiency in operation. The great mercantile navy of the New Haven is organized in various squadrons on diverse footings.





HELL GATE BRIDGE ACROSS THE EAST RIVER: A TRIUMPH OF DESIGN AND CONSTRUCTION

The New England Navigation Company is an independent corporation, all its stock held by the parent Company. The New Haven's car-floats, tugs, and transfer steamers in New York Harbor are directly as much a part of the railway equipment as its cars and locomotives are. In various steamboat companies the New Haven holds more or less stock. In the Merchants and Miners Transportation Company—its steamship lines connecting Boston and Providence with Philadelphia, Baltimore, Norfolk, and Newport News—the New Haven's half-interest assures an amicable relationship rather than control. Altogether the New Haven's aquatic domain includes all the leading ports of Long Island Sound and connecting waters and extends northwards into Massachusetts Bay and to Portland, while in the opposite direction its sphere of influence reaches beyond New York far along the Southern coast.

The Cape Cod Canal will greatly augment the value of these marine services. This long-mooted project had been bitterly opposed by railway interests until the present head of the New Haven, with characteristic foresight, reversed the policy. He heartily approved the enterprise, appreciating that it meant better and cheaper transportation facilities for New England industries and would correspondingly benefit his railway. A railway could not afford to carry coarse and bulky freight at the low rates possible in water-borne traffic. The building of the canal would release much rolling stock for carrying high-grade manufactured products.

How can one person look after a task so many-sided and not be swamped by the burden? Its each and every aspect is by itself sufficient to demand the undivided attention of a man of the highest capacity. Mr. Mellen, of course, is one of the busiest of men; his work represents the intensest application of individual energy. But with him it is energy of the silent-working kind. His activity suggests a huge dynamo quietly distributing its force. He accomplishes and achieves by keeping his subject well in hand, seeing clearly the main things to be done, keeping the whole field before him, learning its possibilities, and then, after

indicating the broad lines of development, leaving their execution to capable hands. With things once going right, he bothers himself no further with the manner of their doing, although his faculty for keeping everything in mind all over his system is marvelous. His estimation of men, his selection of subordinates, is a main source of strength. He is quick to recognize good work; his confidence once given is seldom misplaced. So he has built up a working organization of uncommon efficiency. The intense loyalty of his staff indicates how well the human equation plays its part in assuring a smooth-running mechanism for his great establishment. Successful leadership is an industrial lubricant, and the sense of working in the midst of great achievements is breeding a splendid *esprit du corps* throughout the New Haven system. Mr. Mellen has a strong sense of justice in his dealings as a railway man, both in relation to his employees and to the public. One hears of numerous acts of quiet helpfulness that stand to his credit.

President Mellen looms large among his fellows. His mastery of traffic strategy, his capacity to plan with continental comprehensiveness and breadth, his financial grasp, and his command of enormous resources made possible by the confidence which his record for achievement has inspired in monetary leaders—these place him in a class by himself. Not a little has been said and written about his personality. He has been represented as arrogant and domineering, ready to ride rough-shod over opposition. True, he has a way of getting there, and some who get in his way spread unfriendly impressions justified neither by his attitude nor his activities in relation to public interests. Those who meet him but casually might view him as one possessed with granitic gravity, a man of iron. Those who come nearer, however, take delight in his companionability, his democratic unconventionality, and they know him for what he is, a big human proposition. His friends detect the twinkle in his eye when his dry humor finds vent, often flavored with odd Yankee expressions that show him a veritable connoisseur in the quaint vernacular of rustic New England. A member of a certain public board had been re-

proached with prejudicing a case that was to come before it, a case to which President Mellen's Company was a party, and had consequently announced that he would not sit with his colleagues upon it. "But how do I know," asked Mr. Mellen, "that he would not 'horse-shed' the jury?" It seems that in former days in rustic New Hampshire, when attempts upon the integrity of the courts were not unknown, the horse-shed near the courthouse was reputed to be the scene of such negotiations.

Nervously organized, of delicate sensibility, impulsive in utterance, yet with an extraordinarily convincing power for vividly logical presentation, Mr. Mellen is a type of what Mr. H. G. Wells calls the "poietic" (from the Greek *poieo*, to make, produce, or create) class of mind. Men of that type are pre-eminently constructive, intensely imaginative, of rare visualizing power; they see clearly the way meant for them to go, and have the will to traverse it in full consciousness of their power. Of such are the empire-builders, the great generals, great statesmen, great engineers, great merchants—all masters of men—as well as the great artists, composers, and men of letters.

Men of such capacities are tempted to work at unceasing high pressure. But Mr. Mellen has learned to economize his energy. Leisure is the best of time-savers, he finds, and the days that he gives to bucolic pursuits at his country home in Stockbridge go far to keep him in condition for his gigantic undertakings. Through long morning hours he forgets that there is such a thing as a railway. Here he has brought together a collection of birds from all parts of the world that a first-class "zoo" might well covet. He is devoted to his family, big-hearted, sympathetic, is fond of general reading on a wide range of subjects, and his literary tastes are reflected in the fine library he has brought together.

His plans once formed, he is as sure of himself, of the outcome he is building for, as a chemist who knows his ingredients is of his results. He attests his faith by casting his own lot in with the investors in the property he has in charge. When he was made President of the Northern Pacific, he put all his means into the stock

of that company. When he returned to the New Haven, he sold his Northern Pacific holdings and invested the proceeds in the Connecticut corporation. His whole heart is in his work. He neither speculates nor tolerates speculation in those about him.

Mr. Mellen's love of the beautiful in nature and in art finds expression in a way that makes him a notable factor in the National movement that seeks to give attractive design to works of utility which stand conspicuously in the public eye. The New Haven's structural work used to be substantial but unbeautiful. President Mellen appreciates the practical worth of artistic quality, and has heartily encouraged the evolution of the New Haven into the railway beautiful. He feels that in such ways a more intimate relationship between railway and public is cultivated. The standard type for new signal towers, as realized at Providence, Waterbury, and other points, is one of numerous manifestations of this tendency. These towers are studied with particular reference to the monolithic individuality of concrete construction. Various new stations are the work of eminent architects. The costly structure at Waterbury was designed by McKim, Mead & White; its lofty clock tower, the famous one at Sienna its prototype, is now the city's distinctive landmark. Cass Gilbert did the way stations that delightfully embellish the Harlem branch, and the same architect designed the monumental affair to be built at New Haven. The new station at Naugatuck, with tasteful grounds, is particularly charming.

Now that Mr. Mellen practically holds the transportation future of New England in his hand, what may be looked for? In general, it may be said that his broad underlying purpose is to organize New England as a unified transportation district both in regard to its internal conditions and its relations to the country at large west of the Hudson—a united interest so strong as to be able to make its own terms with the trunk lines for east-bound traffic, both domestic and export, in exchange for a commensurate sharing in the return currents contributed by the high-grade domestic industries. He would systematically encourage the devel-

opment of New England resources, both manufacturing and agricultural; and the latter is not to be despised, as witness the potatoes of Aroostook and the intensive farming of Massachusetts and Connecticut. In short, to study out the sort of transportation service best adapted to these ends, and then to provide it in the most efficient form possible—that is the life task that President Mellen has set for himself.

The remaking of the New Haven indicates what awaits the Boston and Maine as soon as time and resources permit the realization of intentions. One great opportunity may be cited: New England is already the greatest summer pleasure-ground of the United States. But its possibilities have hardly begun to be realized as they may be with efficient transportation at command. Many beautiful spots stand in high favor with summer residents from all sections of the country. With swift and comfortable transportation this summer population can be many times multiplied. Convenient access from the Nation's metropolis is particularly demanded. Take the beautiful Berkshire country in Massachusetts: a costly cut-off to be constructed between Greenwich and Danbury in Connecticut will save something like an hour between New York and the Berkshires. The orthodox objection to the big outlay involved would be: "Why sacrifice the long haul? Why not keep on carrying your passengers the long way around? Can't you see that the reduced mileage clips off eighty cents' worth from every ticket you sell for the Housatonic Valley? Is that the way to earn your dividends? How are you going to get back the millions spent for your new line?"

This for reply: "The new line will develop the beautiful country it passes through; the shortened trip will spread Lenox and Stockbridge all over Berkshire County. The lessened mileage will in itself be relatively more profitable than the old figure now is. The same passengers will go over the line twice or more where they now go once. And for every passenger we now carry we will throw a dozen or more into those valleys. Then think of the freight traffic the new population will create!"

Here we have the new efficiency in a nutshell.





A POLISH GIRL AT WORK IN THE ONION FIELDS

# The Black Dirt People

By Henry Hoyt Moore

With Photographs by the Author

**F**LORIDA produces most of the onions that are grown in New York. This sounds paradoxical until one learns, as I did not long ago, that Florida is a small town in Orange County, New York. Perhaps the place was so named because of a fancied resemblance to the vast swampy region in the State of Florida known as the Everglades. But why didn't the oldest inhabitant call the new settlement in Orange County Little Florida, or Floridaville, or Floridette, or something else as bad, but nevertheless distinctive enough to avoid

confusion? Perhaps he was not a prophet, and never realized that his new home was to become the center of the onion industry and the subject of a magazine article!

It was, indeed, only a score or so of years ago that onions began to be raised on a large scale in Florida. And now— Well, a friend of mine to whom I confided my intention of visiting the onion-growing country remarked, "When I went through that section last spring on the Erie Railroad, I could smell the onions as the train passed, though the fields were

miles away." And, in fact, the prevailing odor in Florida is that of the onion. It rises from the fields, steals forth from the storehouses, and emanates from the wagons that travel in unceasing procession to and from the railway station. There, however, let me assure the sensitive reader, the matter ends. If the outlander imagines that the natives have the blessed privilege of eating their fill of onions whenever they like, regardless of consequences because of the omnipres-

in the village told me that during the busy shipping period he had seen as many as seventy wagons loaded with onions at the freight sheds waiting to deliver their odorous cargo.

Florida is the business center of the "black dirt" district of Orange County. This comprises several thousand acres of muck land, which was once, probably, in prehistoric times, the bottom of a lake. Here and there over this great level area of rich soil rise elevations which are



THE BLACK DIRT COUNTRY

ence of the onion odor, he finds himself mistaken. Nobody eats onions in Florida, for the same reason, probably, that nobody eats candy in a candy factory. The people of the locality abjure their famous product as a diet. During the three or four days that I spent in and about the village no onions were served at any of my meals. Evidently the all-prevailing odor of the vegetable acts as a deterrent to its home consumption. Or perhaps so many are sent away to market that none are left for local use. The freight agent

appropriately called "islands"—Pine Island, Merritt's Island, etc. The Wallkill River flows through these "drowned lands," as they are called, and where the land is not too low it is ditched and drained off into the river or its tributaries, and then you have the richest farming land this side of Dakota. A few acres of this soil will make a man comfortable. It will even make him comfortable if he gives half of the produce to a tenant, and many of the villagers do this, renting their farms on shares.



The people who do the hard work in the onion fields are largely of foreign birth. Onions are a peculiar crop. They require first a rich soil and second a great deal of hand work for their successful cultivation and harvesting. American farmers do not like to go down on their hands and knees to pull weeds or to "top" onions. So the Florida onion crop is raised by Poles. The Polacks seem furnished by Providence with acheless backs and tireless hands, indispen-

for wages. But most of them work on shares, furnishing half the seed, doing almost all the labor, and getting half the crop. The Poles have large families; everybody works—"father" hardest of all. They are not afraid to "dig in." Wives and children, down to the merest tots, seem to be glad to help. It would do the pessimistic sociologist good to see the happy families in the fields of Florida. I saw a family of seven, father, mother, and five children, all on their knees at



A FAMILY AT WORK GRADING THE ONIONS

sable requisites for the successful raising of onions on a large scale. Hundreds of them work in the onion fields of Florida. Twenty-five years ago a few of them discovered this Eldorado of the onion and their own affinity for raising the gold, in the guise of these red, white, and yellow bulbs, from the black earth. They sent for their friends and neighbors in Poland; these passed on the glad tidings to others. Now some of the Poles own their own farms here. Others come from a distance, during the busy season, to work

work among the onions. I asked one of these, a little girl of eleven with a sweet smile and a good working vocabulary of English acquired in the district school, which she liked better, work or school. "School," she answered simply; "work in the meadows is harder." And surely it is. From six in the morning often till eight at night they toil, these followers of the simple agricultural life. An hour of this hand and knee work in the hot August sun would, I think, discourage most of us from forming the onion-raising





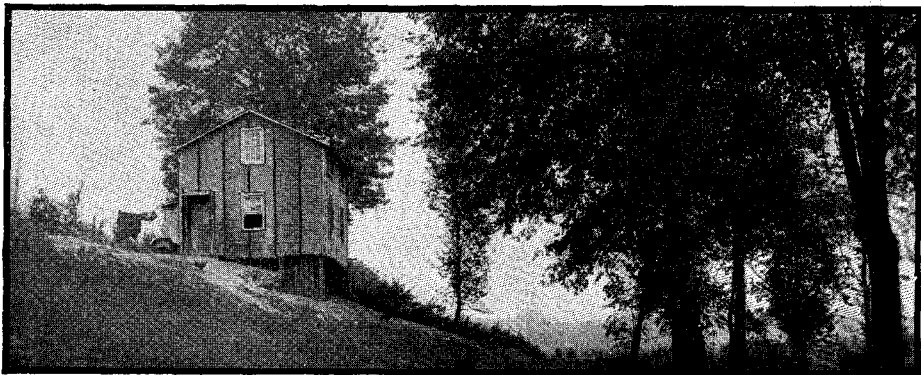
#### TOPPING

The worker rapidly removes the stalks with her shears

habit. But the Poles work on, and seem to thrive under it. The parish priest told me that since he came to his countrymen here, in 1895, the names of 914 babies had been entered in his baptismal book.

I was interested in seeing how the mothers took care of their babies while at work. The mother usually has a high-wheeled baby-carriage in which she trundles the latest born to the field, and leaves it under the shade of a convenient tree, perhaps guarded by a faithful dog, while she goes off to her work. In other

cases she gets her "man" to make a shelter for the baby. Three stout sticks are stuck in the soft ground, forming a tripod to which a sheet or blanket is tied. In this the baby is placed, with a covering to shield it from the sun. The little Polacks are good babies, and need scarcely any attention. The mothers, like good mothers everywhere, are proud of their babies, and were quite willing to have them photographed, though usually they wanted first to give them the benefit of a hasty "slicking up." Sometimes they didn't



A HOME OF THE BLACK DIRT WORKERS



#### BUNCHING

Semi-masculine attire enables the woman worker to move quickly between the rows

care to have their own pictures taken, having the mistaken idea that they would look better in their "store clothes." It was not always easy to understand what the Polish women said. The intelligent young American farmer who piloted me through the drowned lands, in speaking to the Polacks, used a kind of pidgin-Polish. The Poles themselves answered in the same strange dialect, which will make a modest fortune some day for the story-writer who can put it into print. Their command of English is of the simplest,

chiefly of the more emphatic words and phrases of the vernacular. "Come, Mary," said my young guide, "we takum picter." "Na, na," was Mary's answer, as she looked first at us and then at her soiled clothes and hands; "me look like de debbil." She was soon reassured, however, and willingly allowed me to take a snapshot after giving her dress a hurried smoothing. We had a different reception, though, from the daughter of one of the more prosperous Polacks just outside of the village. She was rather good-looking,



#### THE WEEDING SEASON





CELERY IS ALSO A GREAT CROP IN THE BLACK DIRT COUNTRY

with that wealth of hair which characterizes her countrywomen in their native land. She refused steadfastly to succumb to our blandishments. "Huh! think I

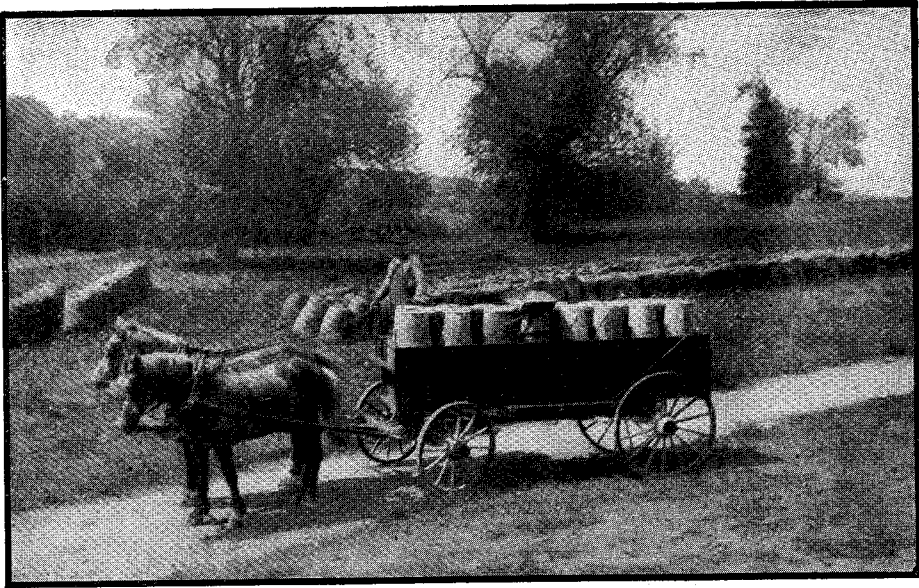
want my picture in a paper?" she exclaimed, with unexpected awareness. I tried to placate her by assuring her that, at any rate, the photograph would be used, if at all, in a magazine, not a Sunday newspaper. "Yas, and that's worse!" was her astonishing answer. But then this girl wore her hair in the prevailing mode, used fluent English of the rough-and-ready kind, and in other ways gave evidence of sophistication, so that I am sure the reader will not miss her photograph. She was the only one of this advanced type that I met, however, and I strongly suspect that she was really a visiting city cousin, wise to the ways of the world.

Onions are a profitable crop in a good year, when six hundred or more bushels an acre can be grown. While they do not bring the prices that fancy Spanish or Bermuda onions bring (from six to ten cents a pound at retail in New York City, I found on inquiry), they still furnish a good return on the investment. The white onions, or Silverskins, I was



USING THE ONION SCOOP





MARKETING TIME

informed by my young farmer friend, bring the best price, then the yellow, or Southport Globe, then the ordinary red onion of commerce. Celery and lettuce are also raised on the drowned lands, and I heard a story of an acre of lettuce yielding a profit of \$1,200. I also saw an acre of lettuce which yielded nothing, because of an over-stocked market. But lettuce-raising is hardly farming—it is almost gambling. Onions, while perhaps never yielding such high profits, are rarely a total failure. The district is by no means yet all developed, and still more onions may be raised in the future. Most of the black dirt land in the neighborhood of Florida is held at as high a figure as \$300 an acre. Expropriated Poles and dissatisfied American capitalists please take notice!

The profits of onion culture are such that the Poles frequently buy land instead of working on shares, have money to put in the bank and to spend on their church, and also, alas! some of them, on the local bar-rooms. Thousands of dollars

in "onion checks" are cashed daily in these latter places in flush times, and a fair proportion is spent in the favorite place of exchange. "The Poles are good



SEWING THE SACKS



THE CATHOLIC WORKERS NEVER MISS CHURCH ON SUNDAY

spenders," said one of the bartenders to me. "They don't waste their money, but they are free to spend what they can afford. A man will come in and get a forty or fifty dollar check cashed and will stay and spend two or three dollars with us, on pool and drinks, before he goes home—not more than that." I was thankful that it was not more. Evidently it was more than most of them spent on Sunday at the other equally popular institution in the onion country, the Polish Catholic church.

Sunday is a real rest day in the black dirt district, notwithstanding the fact that many of the Polacks walk several miles to their church. A good proportion of the Poles, however, drive to church. The first thing a Pole gets with money earned is a horse—a good horse if he can afford it, but a horse. There are commodious horse-sheds near the church, and long is the procession of vehicles as the hour for mass draws near. The wife and babies are all togged out in their best, the older girls with flower-garden head-gear and white dresses, the boys with their "store clothes" and hats, and the father

with a white shirt and collar, a black slouch hat, and black coat and trousers of the ready-made cut. The good man is not as comfortable in this attire as in his workaday clothes, but he feels entirely respectable, and that is quite as important. He goes reverently with his family into the prettily decorated Polish church, drops into his pew or seat with its typewritten card bearing his name (my seat bore the card of Ulatowski Stanislaw), and he participates in the services with genuine satisfaction. My pew-neighbor allowed me to examine his prayer-book. It was neatly bound in morocco, was attractively mysterious in its strange typography, and it bore the imprint of "Warszawa."

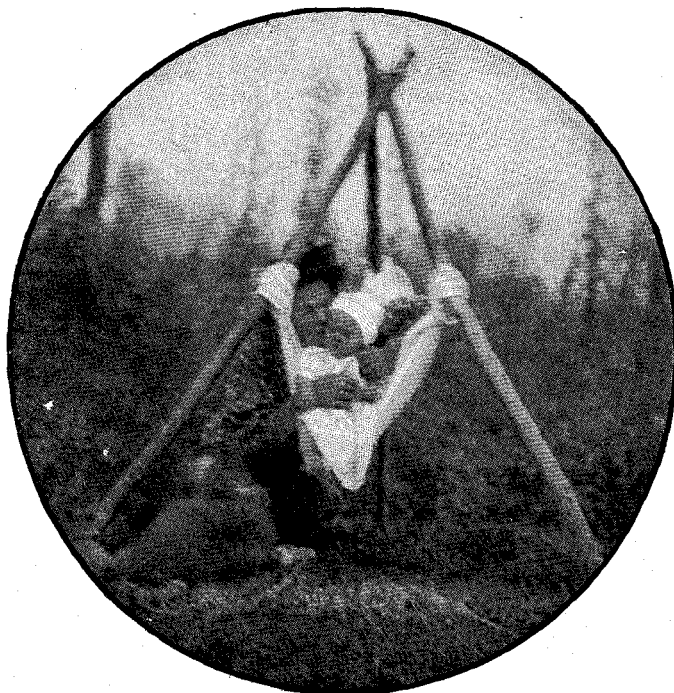
The Polish priest is a genuine father to his flock. He counsels them on things material as well as spiritual, and apparently to their benefit in both directions. When I spoke to him after the service, he was engaged in advising a Polish woman as to a promissory note which she held in her hand and about which she seemed to be in difficulty. A traveled man of much worldly knowledge, he seems



to earn, even from the secular standpoint, all that the faithful give for his support and that of the church. As I intimated above, the faithful count carefully the sums they part with at the church service. On the occasion when I was present—the eight o'clock mass—the collector passed rapidly through the aisles with his basket, and when he reached my seat he suddenly halted, his sharp eye detecting the modest silver coin which I put in the basket among the others. Whispering, "Change?" he gathered several nickels together to return to me. As I shook my head he passed quickly on, a gleam of gratitude, I thought, illuminating his face; but in several other cases, as I watched him passing among the worshippers, I noticed that he actually gave change to contributors of cannier instincts. At this early hour in the morning the church, seating six hundred, was nearly filled with its reverent congregation.

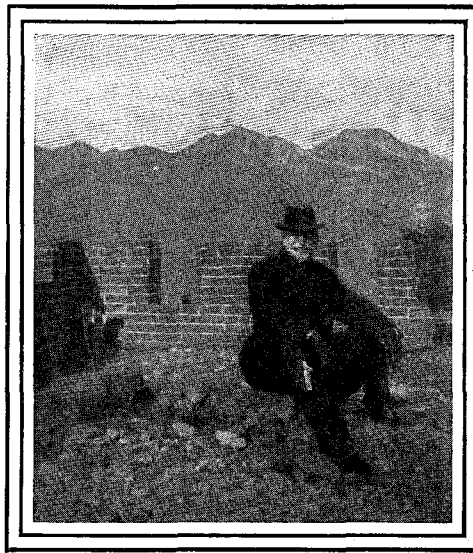
Sunday afternoon you may see these hard-working peasants getting a little relaxation. The women take a walk and visit their neighbors, or sit on the house steps, dressed in their best; the children play decorously, careful of their Sunday finery; the boys may have a game of

baseball, but without noise or unseemly hilarity; the men sit around, too tired to do anything but rest. But this is their busy time. Later on in the season they have considerable leisure. As one of them expressed it, "We work five months and live twelve." I hope this means also some leisure time for the women. They look strong and healthy, but my heart went out to the young mother who told me that she worked in the fields "only" from eight in the morning till five at night, because she had a five-months-old infant. Of course she did her housework besides, and looked after her other children and her "man." And yet she seemed cheerful and happy, on her knees there in the black dirt, looking smilingly up through her red sunbonnet, as she told me how good the baby was. Her work, indeed, hard as it seemed, was certainly preferable to that of many of the factory workers. For there was the bright sun overhead, and the pure air to breathe, and the wholesome feel of the good black dirt, and the pungent smell of the plump yellow bulbs, and the thought that these would buy the new dress for the baby, and—maybe—help pay sometime for an onion field that should be their very own.



THE NURSERY OF THE BLACK DIRT FIELDS





ON THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

# A Business Man's View of Missionary Work in China

By Charles M. Dow

The author of this article, the Hon. Charles M. Dow, of Jamestown, New York, has recently returned from a trip around the world. While in China and Korea he devoted considerable time to visiting missionary institutions and talking with representatives of various nations concerning the work which is being done throughout the East by missionaries from this country and elsewhere. Mr. Dow is the President of the National Chautauqua County Bank of Jamestown, and has other extensive business interests in western New York. He is also President of the Commissioners of the State Reservation at Niagara. His verbal report in conversation with the editors of *The Outlook* of what he had seen was so interesting that he was asked to present the matter to readers of *The Outlook*, and the following article is the result.—THE EDITORS.

"THAT is where the superfluous girl babies were formerly drowned; it covers the site of an ancient pond which we have only recently filled," said the surgeon in charge, as we stood on the porch of the Nurses' Home of the Methodist Hospital at Kiukiang, China. The object to which the Chinese surgeon called my attention was a beautiful garden. "You admire the garden?" commented the surgeon. "It is a creation of Chinese taste and substantial Christian sympathy."

In sailing down the Yangtsekiang our steamer stopped at Kiukiang for several

hours, and on the invitation of Bishop Lewis, a fellow-passenger, we visited the Methodist mission there. He promised, as a special inducement, that we should meet a remarkable Chinese surgeon. At the mission hospital, when the surgeon appeared from an operation, I was greatly surprised to find a small and very attractive native Chinese woman of thirty-five or thereabouts—Dr. Mary Stone. Dr. Stone was the daughter of converted parents, and her mother was one of the very first women in China to unbind her feet. She was educated in a mission school, and then came to America

and graduated from the University of Michigan. She is a surgeon of acknowledged ability, and has a large influence among the Chinese because of her skill and learning. The hospital over which she presides is for women and children, and has one hundred or more beds. She has twelve Chinese women who are trained nurses, having received their instruction in that hospital. Dr. Stone, besides her many other duties, gives a medical course to the brightest of these women, and, in order to do this, has been compelled to translate some of the latest and best of our medical books into Chinese. In all, she is of great value as an example of what the second generation of Christianizing influence can bring forth.

Dr. Stone is also active in a host of other things; among them she is Vice-President of the National Anti-Footbinding Society, and was among the first in the anti-slavery movement, taking the initiative in protecting the unfortunate girls who were brought down the river into slavery and finding employment for them in the great cotton mills at Shanghai, where from forty to fifty thousand people are employed. Word has been carried to all parts of China that a new industrial day is dawning, in which women may become self-supporting, and, with that day approaching, the practice of girl infanticide is fast passing.

The mission compound contains about six acres, and adjoins the twenty-acre campus of Nast College. The compound buildings are commodious, and among them is a pleasant home for the missionary women, where we were entertained at an elaborate and well-served lunch. The work is under the charge of Miss Stone

and three accomplished American women, who are doing a grand world's work. Miss Hughes is a New Yorker, and has about one hundred women in her Bible school work. Miss Merrill and Miss Smith are in charge of the girls' school. We went through their school-rooms, and they were as bright and clean and attractive as any school anywhere, with a wonderfully inspiring outlook from the windows—the towering mountains in the background and the Yangtse, as it winds through the plain, presenting a scene long to be remembered.

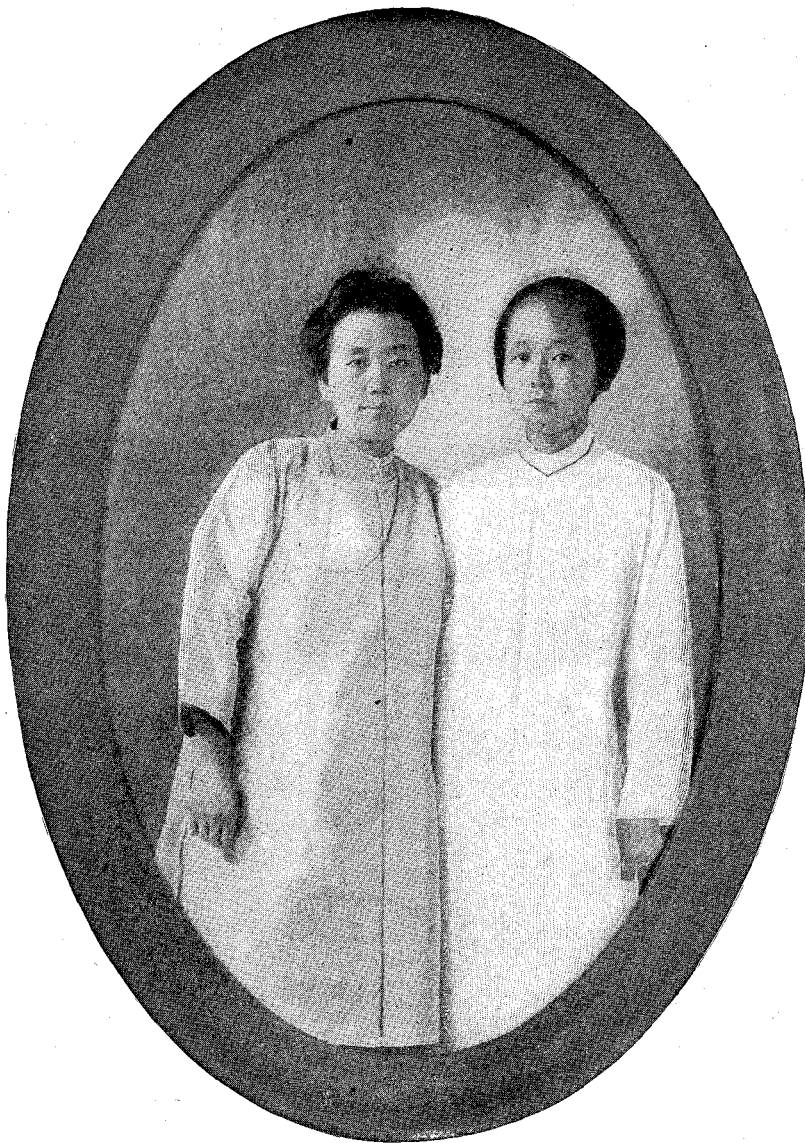
If the good people of America who have contributed to that mission could but have the impressions that I gathered in my few hours' visit, they would know that their money had been well invested and repaid many times over; and the work of these fine women should be a lasting inspiration to every woman who is taking part in the world's missionary work.

Foreign missions had never interested me, but in crossing the Pacific I came in contact more or less with the thirty missionaries who were going out, most of them to an unknown field. I believe I shared the general feeling on board—of regret that America was to be so feebly represented. They were, however, thoroughly earnest—a very important part of equipment in any enterprise.

A person traveling in Japan cannot but become very much interested in Buddhism and Shintoism, so when I first came in contact, in Seoul, Korea, with the active workers in the missionary field, I had some grounds from which to make estimates. My first afternoon at Seoul I called at the Young Men's Christian Association building in search of a gentleman



THE ELIZABETH SKELTON DANFORTH MEMORIAL HOSPITAL AT KIUKIANG, CENTRAL CHINA



DR. MARY STONE AND HER SISTER, PHEBE STONE

to whom I had a letter of introduction, and my guide, unexpectedly to me, ushered me into a conference of the missionary workers of that city. I was received most cordially and invited to visit their churches, schools, and hospitals, which I did, and became very much interested in everything I found there. In this capital of "the Hermit Kingdom" (thirty years ago almost unknown to Europe or America) that Sunday evening I saw six hundred native Koreans sitting on the floor in Dr. Gale's church, all interested, cleanly, and hopeful ;

960

and the following day in the schools scores of boys studying together, and as fine a lot of boys as one would find in the average American school.

At the Young Men's Christian Association building and at the hospitals one finds the air and breeziness of one of our Western towns where results are being accomplished. The missionaries are full of work and full of hope. Korea is in a plastic condition and in a process of readjustment. The Koreans resent the merciless treatment that they are receiving



from the Japanese. They know their helplessness, and there is a longing for moral and spiritual support.

These missionaries are experienced and level-headed men and women. My observation is that they are of a very high type, that their methods are the most approved and based on experience in the Orient, and that the results they are accomplishing from a statistical standard of comparison are beyond those heretofore accomplished in any missionary field.

My time in Seoul was but partly spent with the missionaries. I was at the Club and met nearly all those who compose the foreign colony aside from the missionaries. Among them were the representatives of the different Governments and the men who are operating the mining and other franchises. All who mentioned the subject in my presence spoke in the highest terms of the American missionaries. There is a unity, harmony, and undenominationalism in their Christian work that is unexpected and refreshing.

While in the East I saw a tremendous stone lifted and moved without machinery

by a large number of men using levers and a system of ropes that were adjusted so that each man bore his proper proportion of work. It reminded me of the Korean missionary work, which is so well done that the machinery, the denomination, is not apparent.

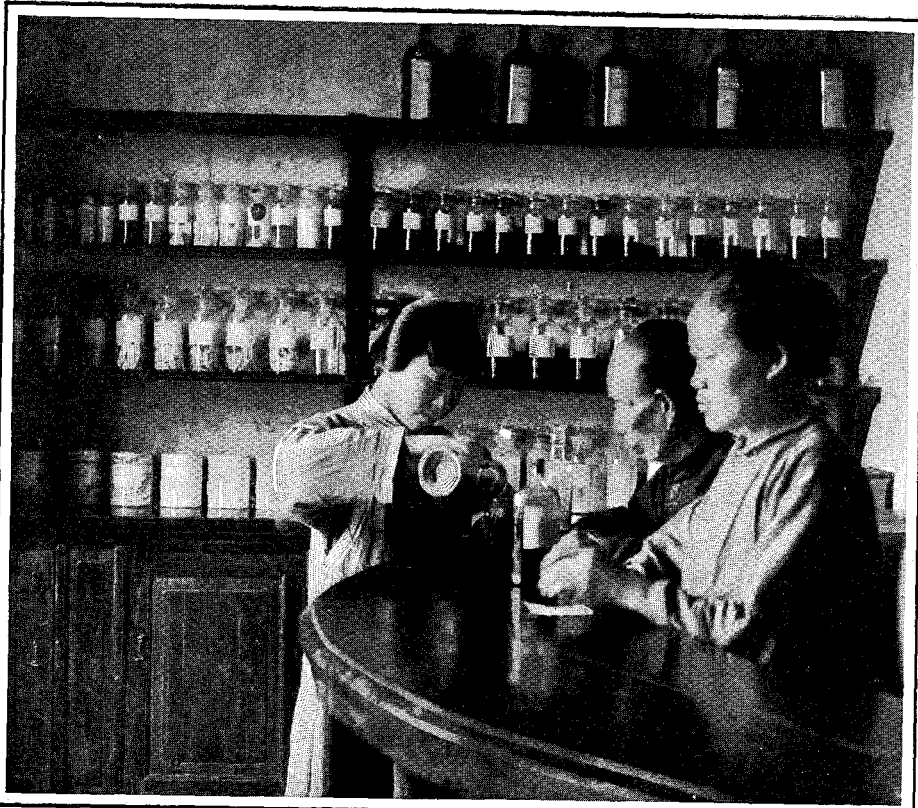
The hospitals, schools, and missionary homes are all buildings creditable to our country. It was very gratifying to know that the people who are doing this work are as well and comfortably housed as they would have been at home; and I found like conditions elsewhere in the Orient.

The man or woman is to be congratulated who has the opportunity of taking a share in the work of spreading Western civilization among these tall, Caucasian-faced, white-robed, mysterious people, who are looking to them for help as the poor fishermen of old looked for help from the Galilean.

We saw but little of missionaries in Manchuria, but heard them spoken of incidentally by people we met, and always in the highest terms.



DR. STONE AND DR. KAHN WITH A GROUP OF NURSES AND BIBLE WOMEN



THE DISPENSARY AT THE ELIZABETH SKELTON DANFORTH MEMORIAL HOSPITAL

Soon after our arrival in Peking I presented a letter of introduction to Professor W. Hopkin Reese, of the London mission, now senior theological professor of Union College, who has lived in Peking twenty-seven years. During our week there we were entertained at missionary homes and dined where several distinguished missionaries were guests, among them Dr. Arthur H. Smith, who has written some of the best books on China. From these cultured people, whose homes have been in or near the Imperial city for years, we learned much that helped us to understand the meaning of many things that we saw in traveling inland to the heart of China, and out again to Shanghai, Hongkong, and Canton. It was with some of these people that we visited the Great Wall and the Ming tombs, and Dr. Reese accompanied me to many of the temples. Everywhere we went he was received with great respect and courtesy, and his relations with the Chinese people whom we met gave me a new light on Chinese

962

character. Dr. Reese is an adept punster, a highly developed trait with the Chinese, and their smiling faces and laughing applause followed us everywhere. Peking to-day is a splendid example of what the missionary has done for the East. From this capital he is by his example illuminating the way to Christian civilization. He is revising the Confucian doctrine: "Do not unto others as you would not that others should do unto you." There are evidences everywhere that much of the awakening of China is in practicing the Christian doctrine, our Golden Rule, "Do unto others as you would that others should do unto you," and, in fact, the work of the modern missionary is to spread the practice of that doctrine, and to show the Chinese its breadth and value.

At Nanking we were the guests of President and Mrs. Bowen, of Nanking University, and met all the faculty and visited all the departments of that institution. President Bowen is a fine young fellow, and every man and woman in the work is



proud of that work and its results. Mr. Bowen pays a proportion of some of the salaries of his staff from his own personal means, and the result is better paid and selected men. He has in the college nearly three hundred students, a majority of whom are from the middle classes, but many from the official and wealthy classes are in attendance. They have good, well-lighted, well-ventilated school-rooms, with all the appliances of a modern school, with a circulating library and a Young Men's Christian Association building. Those who have passed from the college have gone with a new idea of living. The homes are better built, cleaner, and more wholesome in every way, and the college is furnishing Government schools with teachers from its graduates, who in turn introduce modern methods and text-books.

There is a medical school under the charge of Dr. Beebe, a man of strong executive ability and tact. His hospital and its administration would do credit to any American city. My recollection is that he treated some five thousand cases last year, and over twenty-five thousand were served at the dispensary.

I asked Mrs. Bowen of the advances in Western civilization that she had noticed

in Nanking in the last five years, and I wrote her comments down on an envelope which I now have before me. I covered both sides of the envelope, and have misplaced the other memoranda. As I read those on the envelope they are:

Foreign houses being built for Chinese use.

Local self-government being established, with primaries attended and controlled by the literati or scholar classes.

Almost all the streets in Nanking macadamized.

Government schools and high schools established and maintained in all the provinces, with many teachers from mission schools, and fifty per cent of the teaching in Western subjects.

Uniformed police force in Nanking, with modern police stations. (Formerly only burglar-catchers carrying a lantern and calling out the watches of the night.)

A street-cleaning department in uniform.

Trades are taught in prisons.

The Viceroy has established a hospital on modern lines where physicians are native graduates of missionary schools.

Fifty per cent reduction in the use of opium in Nanking.

Making good flour in modern mills.

Establishment of a school in Nanking for instructing nurses.

Schools for reforestation and agriculture.

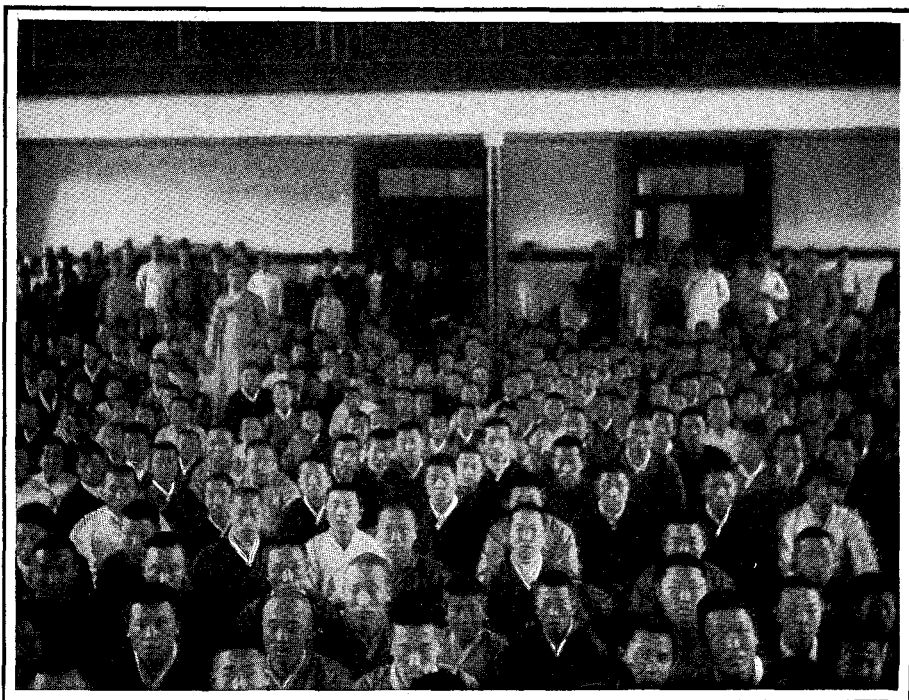
Commercial and railway college.

Cost of living to natives increased fifty per cent.

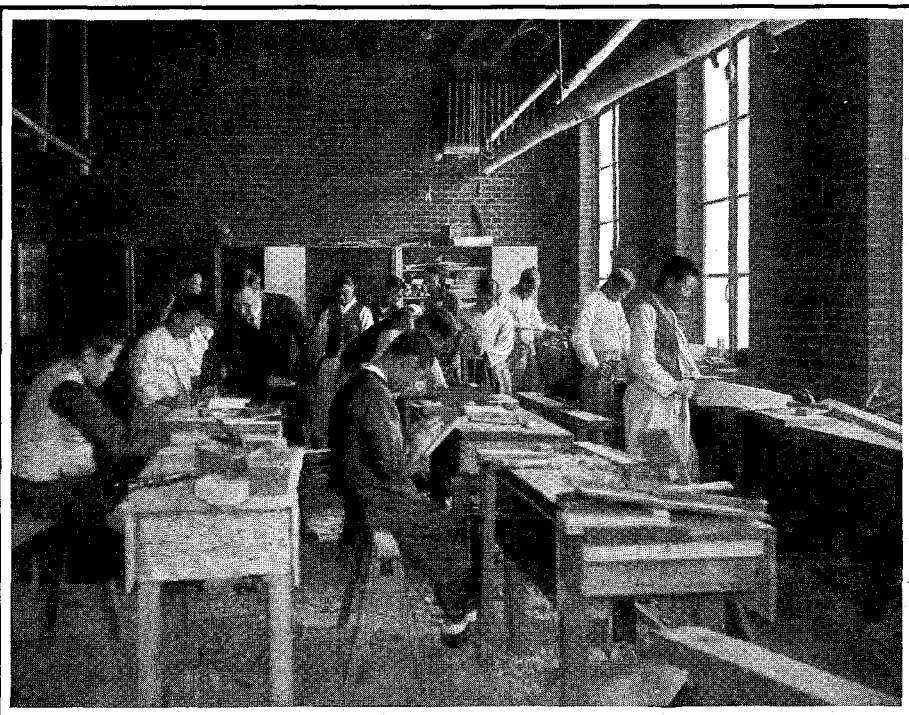


THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION BUILDING IN SEOUL, KOREA





A SUNDAY MEETING AT THE SEOUL YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION



THE CARPENTRY CLASS AT THE SEOUL YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

These are some of the things that indicate "the awakening of China," and when China fully awakes, the last item mentioned by Mrs. Bowen will have a material influence on the financial side of the reckoning of the Chinese as our industrial competitors, a seeming danger now being in their ability to underlive us. It is apparent that their standard of living and of necessity is advancing, and, once advanced, it will not recede. They are good spenders and live as well as they know how, and it is known among merchants that a trade once established with them is more easily maintained than with any other people.

It was my good fortune to have heretofore known several distinguished Japanese and Chinese gentlemen, and I was entertained by some of them while in the Orient, and so gathered much of their philosophy at first hand, and I also learned much of the hopes, ambitions, and observations of present conditions from the same source—among them the Viceroy, Tuan-Fang, one of China's most powerful and most useful men. He is the product of the Chinese civil service examination system, and has been more influential than any other viceroy in effecting the substitution of Western learning and adaptability as qualifications for official positions in place of the memory exercise in Chinese classes. (The great examination hall at Nanking, where twenty thousand students were examined at once, each separated from the other by brick walls, is about to be torn down in the advance of education. The examination hall at Peking has already been demolished.) The Viceroy's entertainment of us was European with Oriental and mediæval setting, and his conversation was most entertaining. He impressed us with the fact that his people are now keeping pace with the new times by translating into Chinese Western books by the thousand, and by the establishment of Government schools and colleges in all centers, covering almost all branches of modern education, both literary and scientific. I mention this great man in order to quote him as to the missionaries. He said: "Many of our most reliable teachers are from the mission schools. Their educational and medical missionaries are

doing very valuable work, and while the clergymen are doing no damage by their preaching, they are doing great good by their example and life." I have also heard much the same from other Chinese gentlemen who are in touch with the times, and these men know all about the missionaries. They learn easily all they want to know, and are shrewd in making deductions from small surface indications.

This Christianizing influence, this Golden Rule, this Western civilization, has touched these men who have lived behind their compound walls regardless of the squalor outside, and they are showing an interest in their fellow-men never known before.

They are greatly interested in the project of the University of Chicago to establish a great university in China. They feel that the proper place for the education of their people is at home, and that while the cost of educating a boy in Japan is not large (only one-tenth of the cost of educating the same boy in Europe or America), the moral ideas of their young men upon returning from Japan have degenerated. China to-day has the brightest outlook for young men and women in the missionary field, whether preachers, physicians, or teachers, of any country in the world. They will become the teachers of the teachers of the future, and the discomforts of life there are more than offset by the satisfaction of results to be accomplished. Education in any line is greatly prized, and the educator is esteemed above all others.

On my steamer trip through the Indian Ocean and up through the Suez Canal I came in contact with several missionaries on their way home. Instead of the inexperienced and ill-prepared people that I met on the trip out, I found them able, broad-minded, thoroughly versed in the affairs of the world, students of race, sociology, and government relations—all matters of intense live interest in the Orient.

The modern missionary is forced to come in contact with situations that give him a most generous education in the world's affairs, and he is doing his work well in this necessary step in the forward march of the race.



# The Italian who Lived on Twenty-six Cents a Day

By Walter E. Weyl

With Pictures by Wladyslaw Benda

**F**OR three centuries America has been a land of settlers. Race after race has come from Western Europe to Eastern America, forcing its way over mountains and prairies, through forests and deserts, until the continent has been peopled.

Now, from Eastern and Southern Europe come new settlers, anxious, like those of old, to gain a foothold. The conditions are different. The environment of the early settler was the trees and stumps; that of the new is men and tenements. The early settler was on the lookout for Indians; the new pioneer looks out for trolley cars and automobiles. The weakness of the old settler grew out of his isolation; that of the new settler grows from congestion. The early settler suffered from crop failures; the new settler suffers from business failures and industrial depressions.

Conditions change, problems change, but the bread and butter need of humanity remains forever. It is with this need that the new settler struggles; it is through this struggle, fought on American soil, by Americans in process, that the new settler gains his foothold.

That first day in America Pacifico  
sweated and sweated.

Even for New York it was hot. The  
noonday sun blazed upon the baking  
asphalt, the swinging Italian signs gleamed

in the fierce white light. You could have  
cooked an egg in the sunshine.

Pacifico did not mind the heat. He  
was too absorbed in all that his great  
friend Vincenzo told him and showed



him. In one memorable morning the immigrant had seen the Statue of Liberty, Ellis Island, the World Building, the Third Avenue Elevated, and the swarming streets of Little Italy. Vaguely Pacifico thought of big America; of the push-carts, standing cheek by jowl, loaded down with apples and cantaloups and tempting lemons and oranges; of the lazy flies buzzing about the penny slices of anæmic watermelon upon the wooden tray.

"You did well to come to me," commented Vincenzo, the labor agent. "The other padroni—they are thieves and scoundrels."

The newcomer tried to listen, but there was too much to see. He watched Giovanni, the watermelon vender, rise from his soap-box, adjust his Alice-blue undershirt, hitch up his scarlet suspenders, and, with a swish of a blunt hand, brush back his damp black hair. Then Pacifico looked at the high, hunched houses, yellow, red, and drab, with overhead lanes of cluttered fire-escapes. Everywhere were Italians. The narrow alleys, the obscure entries, the gay thronged street (rather a congregation than a thoroughfare), throbbed with the staccato cry of a Latin town. From dingy cellar shops emerged Neapolitans, Calabrians, Sicilians, rising out of darkness into garish light. Save for the ubiquitous Chinese laundryman, it was a solid block of Italy. Only the dignified public school—that inexplicable American charity—reminded Pacifico that he was not in Italy, but in the land discovered by the Genoese sailor.

"Those other padroni," went on Vincenzo, "are rascals and cheats. They rob you of the last soldo. Do you know?"—and here he poured into Pacifico's incredulous ear quick, vibrant stories of unutterable villainies of rival labor agents. Men had been stripped to their uttermost farthing, boys had been forced into beggary, and girls into a nameless, shameful bondage among brutal, incomprehensible aliens. Ah, but he, himself, Vincenzo, the impeccable, had lived a righteous life, earning his scanty profits by hard, honest labor, continuing his business less for himself than for his friends, foremost among whom was Pacifico Sabella. "But those other padroni"—and rapidly he recounted a dozen more stories.

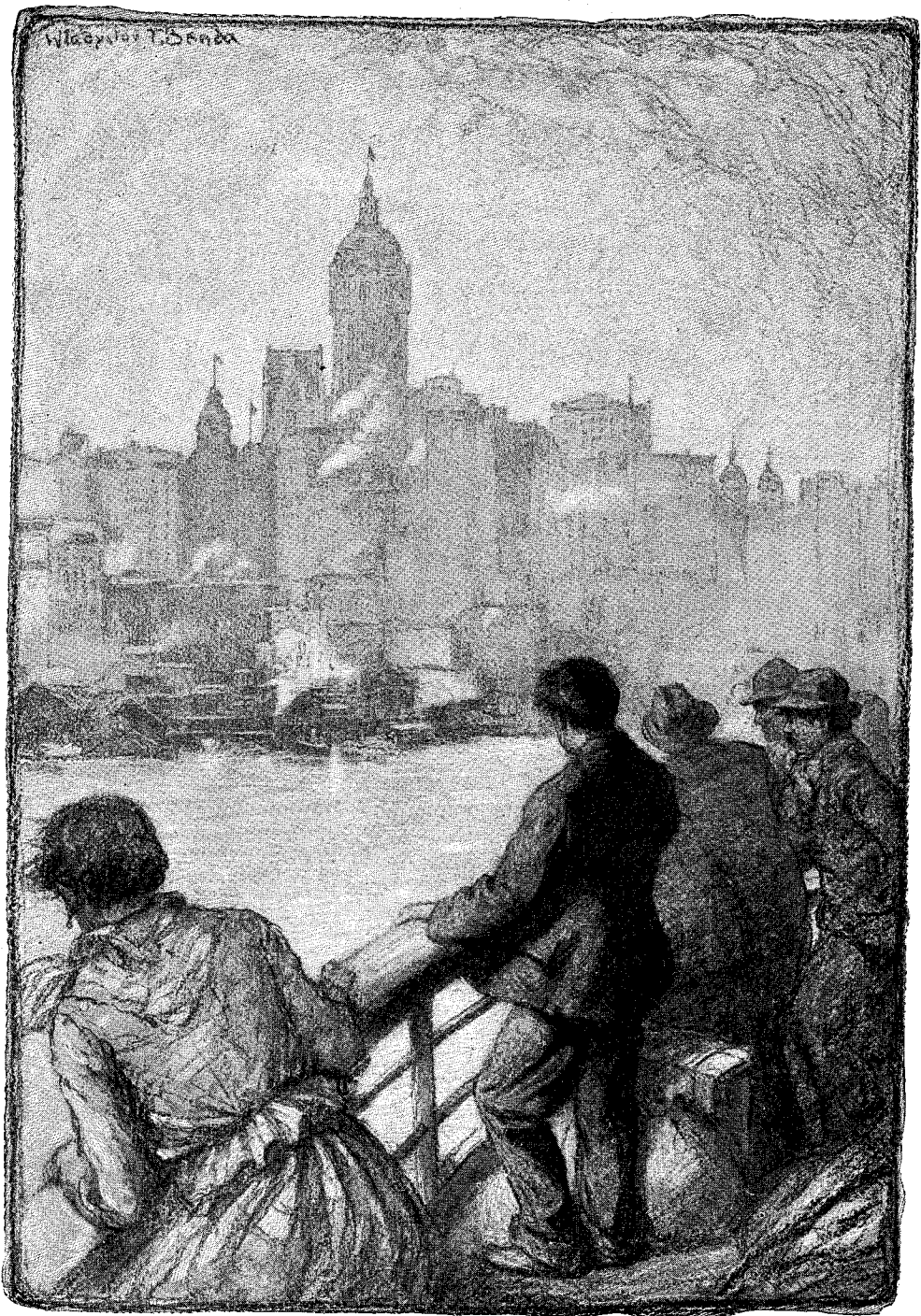
The suspicions of a less trusting man might have fattened on the unctuousness of Vincenzo's tones and the shiftiness of Vincenzo's black eyes. But Pacifico thought no evil. As he shudderingly heard the horrific tales his grasp tightened on the labor agent's arm. "Most surely I come to you, Vincenzo. You are my unique benefactor."

Pacifico had come to America for money. In his village-nurtured imagination the great Western land was the miraculous goose that laid the golden eggs. In America men got jobs at \$1.50 (seven and a half lire) a day; from America came glorious apparitions, Italian peasants transformed into American gentlemen.

Yet beneath this coating of gold there was another thought in Pacifico's dull mind. In America men were free; in America no king oppressed the people with taxes on salt and sugar and all the things that the poor must have. There was a vague Republican tradition in Pacifico's family. A peasant grandfather had seen Mazzini and the great Garibaldi; he had heard Italy's "*Grido di dolore*," and had escaped from the field of Monte Suello with a scar that Pacifico himself, as a little boy, had touched and admired. Now, as a man, Pacifico longed to be the free citizen of the free American Republic.

In this the newcomer was to succeed. At five the next morning he reported for work; at seven, with forty other Italians, he was wielding a pick on a railway thirty miles from the city. All day long the dry-throated laborers toiled in the broiling sun; all day long the Irish boss swore roundly at the new recruit. But who would not be sworn at for a dollar and a half a day? Pacifico smiled a placating smile and timorously imitated the other men. For days he remained the special object of the boss's attention. "You blank blank dirty Guinea," stormed the boss, "you'll never know a blank blank thing about this blank blank work in a blank blank million years."

Now the only words in this objurcation that Pacifico understood were the blank blank, but he put a clear, logical mind upon his labor, and he soon perceived by the lessening volume and velocity of oaths that he was making progress. He secured his dollar and fifty cents a day, minus his railway fare, minus the arbitrary charge



"IN ONE MEMORABLE MORNING THE IMMIGRANT HAD SEEN THE  
STATUE OF LIBERTY, ELLIS ISLAND, THE WORLD BUILDING, THE THIRD  
AVENUE ELEVATED, AND THE SWARMING STREETS OF LITTLE ITALY"



for the doctor, minus Vincenzo's fee, minus the exorbitant sums extorted for the rotten food that Vincenzo sold him. Pacifico, born in a bottomless poverty, was not spoiled, and he shrugged his shoulders at the hard work, the bad food, and the ceaseless exactions. The essential fact remained: he earned a dollar and a half a day; he lived on twenty-six cents a day.

Then, by a blessed miracle of heaven, Pacifico learned fifty English words in less than that many weeks. It was a small vocabulary, but every word, including the invaluable oaths, bore some concrete relation to work and wages. Thenceforth, though he knew it not, Pacifico was on the highroad to success.

The Irish boss was profanely pleased when he discovered Pacifico's linguistic attainments. He made him an interpreter for the "foreigners." "Go to New York and pick up more men," he one day told Pacifico.

The trip was often repeated, and soon Pacifico was a dispenser of wages and the second or "little boss." He was made *bordante*, with the lucrative privilege, if he so desired, of selling inferior goods at exorbitant prices to other Italians in the labor camp. Pacifico, with a desire for gain tempered by conscience and a sense of decency, sold good food at fair prices. Still he prospered. Soon he ran two camps, then three, paying twenty dollars a month and board to the young fellows who became his representatives. As his labor office in New York grew he became a power in the ward, for he had favors to give, jobs to distribute, and votes to influence. He was no less a personage than his one-time benefactor and exploiter Vincenzo, the labor agent.

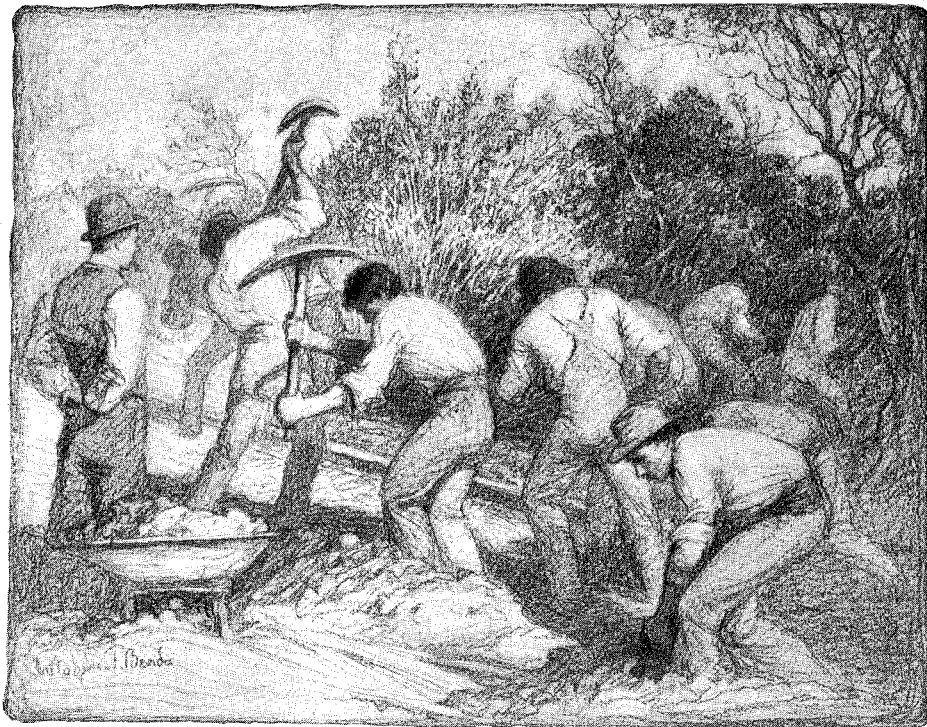
On a bright April day, five years after Pacifico had landed in New York, he made his triumphal visit to his native town. There was no one in all the neighborhood like unto the peerless Pacifico Sabella. So thought the young woman who, of all the redundant maidens, was graciously elected to be the labor agent's helpmeet. So, too, thought all the brothers and sisters of Pacifico, who were given steerage tickets to the new land. The *Americano* almost emptied the village, and each man who translated himself swore by Pacifico and the miracle-working America.

Not all the peaceful flock that followed in Pacifico's wake, not all the multitudinous Italians who land at Ellis Island and peer at you wonderingly through the iron gratings, not many, in fact, hope or dare hope for so startling an ascent. In America, also, the geese walk barefoot; in even this gold-paved land a man must struggle to rise to his feet. Yet even before his journey ends, even on the deck of the overcrowded steerage, the Italian immigrant has heard the word "Freedom," and has been touched by the magic wand of a new weird ambition.

Think what it means, this word Freedom, to the Sicilian dreaming to the stars in mid-ocean. His has been a race of peasants fettered by law, religion, and custom, oppressed by generations of conquerors, big and little. The Greek, the Roman, the Northern Barbarian, the Arab, the Norman, the Spaniard, have all set their foot upon his neck. There have been revolts and revolutions and mutterings and executions and Sicilian Vespers and sudden bloody mutinies, but year by year, century by century, the oppression has gone on. His road has been blocked by State and Church, by king and priest, his eyes have been sealed, his ambition killed, his pride of self, his hope, his dreams, crushed out relentlessly by oppression and ignorance. At last he hears of a limitless freedom, a boundless, measureless opportunity, and instinctively his hard, broad hands go out to the mythical land of promise that lies behind the Statue of Liberty.

Freedom, the illiterate Italian soon learns, is freedom to err and suffer. There is a penalty for the new opportunity, and a price. From the day when in his native village he first listened to the plausible steamship ticket agent, he became involved in an almost inextricable mesh. That talk led to the ticket, to the voyage, to the unscrupulous agent on the New York side. The agent takes from the immigrant a five-dollar bill, and then conducts the newcomer to a saloon, where there is a little drinking and much loud talk about dollars and jobs and America and a strange, wonderful something called Tammany. The immigrant is taken to a lodging-house and kept there until he has no more money. Then





"AT SEVEN, WITH FORTY OTHER ITALIANS, HE WAS WIELDING A PICK ON A RAILWAY THIRTY MILES FROM THE CITY"

he is sent off to a labor camp, where he works excessive hours for a wage which goes in unfair charges to the man who furnishes him with necessaries. Perhaps, after a week's work at a job for which he has paid three or four dollars, he is discharged in order that the same labor agent may get another fee from another patient "greener."

Such is the Italian immigrant's initiation into America. It is a preliminary to getting a foothold. It may be a preliminary to something else. The uninstructed peasant, falling in with thieving, thriving fellow-countrymen, may quite misunderstand the limitations of the new freedom. He may come to think that the little banker who absconds with half a million dollars of his fellow-countrymen's money, the Italian politician who buys immunity and favors from venal judges and policemen, the whole army of sharks and sharpers, Italian, Jewish, Irish, and American, are men to be copied with pious patience. He may die in the trenches, or come out legless or armless, without a cent for his injury. He may be stricken with pneu-

monia by the treacherous wind that comes in through the cracks of the shanty's wall. He may rise a little, save money, pay for tickets which are never sent, invest with his banker money which is never returned, and be thrown within five years back upon himself, spent, exhausted, ground down to utter helplessness.

Yet, despite this ring of rogues, the average Italian immigrant gets his foothold. Walk through the streets of an Italian quarter and you will become convinced. There is poverty here, as there are overcrowding and unsanitary dwellings and a cramped, unwholesome life. But there is not the abysmal wretchedness of Naples or Palermo. You do not see so many beggars, nor starving men or women. The men wear collars, and even the children wear shoes. The shop windows shriek their dwindling stocks of phonographs, jewelry, books, brass bedsteads, macaroni, and sophisticated Italian wines. The poor Italian has money, and he buys.

The emergence of the Italian from a former hopeless, wantless existence is

encouraging; it is also picturesque. At six in the evening the watermelon vender is still at his place, gossiping with unprofitable customers in a mountain dialect of Basilicata. Near by stands old Ignazio, with pale-green shirt and colorless battered vest, with black, piercing eyes and hair sable-silvered, like some gentleman of Medicean Florence fallen upon evil days; he still sells his lettuce and his parsley and his thin little bunches of asparagus. Then, too, there is Adolfo, tall, stooping, broad-shouldered, who looks the comic opera brigand, yet does nothing more romantic than sell amber lemonade. Others come. Along the narrow, humanity-jammed street, smoking sullenly under the declining sun, the home-bound Italian workers pass. Two brothers in earth-stained, faded-blue overalls, with shovels strapped to sloping shoulders; a fat Calabrian with trousers caked in asphalt; a low-browed hod-carrier streaked with lime; a grizzled Sicilian, crushed under a load of paper waste, form part of an infinite procession of toilers. To narrow tenements they go, up creaking wooden stairs, into sultry rooms, where by the lessening light their wives and daughters sew the "pants" and vests for the sweatshop trade. More come, more and more. From all sections of the city, from all sorts of shops and works and "operations" they return, blunted by the day's toil, yet a little ahead in the task of gaining a foothold.

In all parts of the country, in all occupations, the Italians by desperately hard work are laying the foundation of a life in America. In the cities and villages of the North and West the Italians are the diggers, the hewers, the road-builders. There are tens of thousands of Italian laborers in Chicago, New Orleans, and San Francisco; Italian coal-miners in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Indian Territory; Italian toilers on the abandoned farms of New England, in the market gardens near New York, in agricultural colonies in New Jersey and Texas, in the peach belt of Delaware, in the fruit belt of North Carolina, in the cotton-fields of Florida, in the rice and sugar lands of Louisiana, in the great wine-growing districts of Southern California. In the cities are thousands of Italian tailors, barbers, shoemakers,

weavers, artificial-flower makers, cigar-makers, masons, stone-cutters, carpenters, bakers, cooks, and makers of musical instruments. Wherever you see a shovel, a steam-roller, or a dredging-machine there also you see Italians. The man with a broom or a blacking-box is an Italian; the panting men who carry loads of coal or of dripping ice to the tops of frowning tenements are Italians. In the hard, crude, out-of-door work of our civilization the Italian is getting a foothold.

It is easy to show all this by statistics; it is perhaps equally illuminating to give individual examples. The loquacious Giovanni, watermelon vender, is such an example. Giovanni is an artist and a musician, an artist despite his blunt hand and Alice-blue undershirt, a musician despite a prematurely overstrained voice. There are wonderful harmonies in his round, ringleted head, wonderful memories of song-filled days on Sicilian lighters, of blissful evenings in the topmost gallery of the Metropolitan Opera-House, of one ecstatic, triumphant night when something in him moved and he broke into "*La Traviata*," to the excited admiration of those in the restaurant and the vociferous cries of "*Bis, bis, bravo, bis!*" To Giovanni America is a medley of harmonies and discords, a vague swimming panorama of sound and color, with his anæmic watermelons and the dirty indispensable pennies in a sharp foreground.

Yet, though carefully scanning each of these pennies, the thrifty street merchant has a comfortable balance of a hundred dollars in the dingy, brass-grated bank of a fellow-townsmen in Elizabeth Street. Five years ago Giovanni landed in America with ten dollars. A week later he had nothing, and a "friend" to whom he had been recommended owned his ten dollars. Then Giovanni whitewashed. Any one can whitewash. In the Italian quarter—parenthetically—any one can do anything. In a month he had been rag-picker, painter, errand boy, bootblack, Jack-of-all-trades. He kept another man's stand, and soon had his own. Eventually, he predicts, he will set up a prosperous fruit business; he will send for his wife and "*bambino*." He will make money. Thereafter he will be an artist and musician.

Then, again, there is the thrifty boot-

black, bow-legged Cesare. There are bootblacks and bootblacks, and Cesare is a bootblack. "It needs a doctor to use the knife," he insists, "and an artist to use the brush." Cesare is a kind son, a close-fisted, generous friend, and a man with a heart as warm as his legs are crooked. Monthly, since his first perplexed landing in America, a draft has gone to his aging father in Minora. When Cesare lost his all, his carefully garnered one hundred dollars, in the dishonest failure of a little Houston Street bank, he would not join in the prosecution of the banker. "I want my money back," he said, "my *cento scudi*, but if the paper you ask me to sign is to put Pasquale into jail, I'd rather"—here the poignant sense of his loss brought the hot tears to his eyes—"I'd rather lose every soldo of it." When any one in the tenement fell ill, Cesare was the first of many to help. He would bring down a plate of macaroni for the youngest child, or he would contribute half a bucket of coal, or, if distress reached an acute stage, he might even put an unwilling hand into a ragged, capacious pocket, and with ostentatious stealth press a dollar upon the afflicted. No wonder that Cesare, the well-beloved, was godfather to many children.

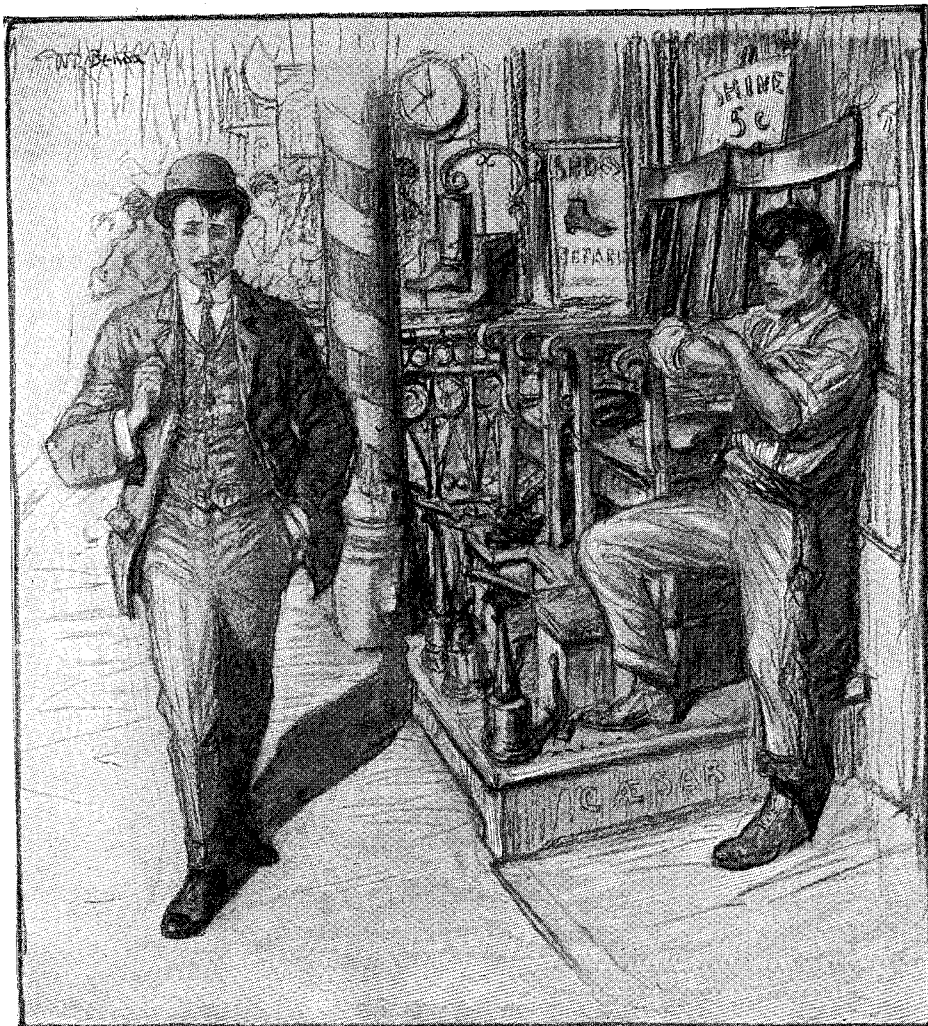
It is Cesare's gettings, however, and not Cesare's givings, that have the widest social significance. Cesare, whose business name is Mike, has built up during two decades, upon the contemptuous nickels thrown him, the tidy fortune of \$17,000. At first he had lived on nothing, going about in rags that a scarecrow might have discarded. He wanted to save. Surely he could not imitate in dress or expenditures those Olympian Americans whose shoes he polished. But one Sunday afternoon he saw a fellow-bootblack arrayed in a derby hat, a stiff white shirt, an almost white silk tie, a great scarf-pin, and, most wonderful of all, a pair of shoes *brilliantly polished*. "You a 'shiner'!" gasped the dumfounded Cesare. It seemed an absurd anomaly that a bootblack who received five cents for shining other people's shoes should polish his very own for nothing. But the bewildering, revolutionary idea stuck. In America even a "shiner" could be a Sunday after-

noon *Signore*. In another month the bow-legged Cesare also wore a derby hat, a stiff white shirt, an almost white silk tie, a great scarf-pin, to say nothing of shoes which outshone the shoes of Luigi as the brilliant effulgence of the sun dims the lesser radiance of the moon. So, too, despite his frugal generosity, Cesare, by economy and hard, grimy, long-continued labor, outdistanced the savings of Luigi. Now the \$17,000 is to be invested in a house in the Bronx, not to live in—Cesare lives with his three brothers in two rooms on Second Avenue—but to make money.

Finally, there is the banker, Giacomo. You or I, who think of a banker as a dignified, soberly dressed, ultra-conservative millionaire, discussing debentures and equities and what not, would hardly recognize "Uncle" Giacomo as one of the financial fraternity. Giacomo is a cellar grocer who has "evolved." An ignorant fellow-countryman once asked him to forward twenty dollars to Italy and import a few bottles of Marsala. In a short time the erstwhile grocer, while retaining his groceries, became a banker, importer, express company, real estate office, and notary public. His sole capital was the friendship of the men of his native village, who loved "Uncle" Giacomo because he was like them, and because in his office you could spit on the floor. Uncle Giacomo lets himself into miniature wildcat enterprises, and his depositors are surer of a friendly smile than of the eventual return of their money. Still he offers not only a high rate of interest, but all sorts of accommodation, from forwarding your letters to giving you legal and personal advice; and does he not command the respect of the President of the United States, since the Chief Magistrate has made him a notary public and has actually deigned to establish a postal sub-station in Giacomo's office?

The very existence of Giacomo, the very activity of scores of little Italian banks in New York and other cities, proves that the immigrant is gaining his foothold. The Italian workman earns and saves. Some of his savings go to Italy, for eighty per cent of all Italian immigrants are males and eighty-five per cent are adults, and the dependents at home must be supported.





"IN AMERICA EVEN A 'SHINER' COULD BE A SUNDAY AFTERNOON Signore."

So long as the ideal of the immigrant is to repatriate himself, savings are largely shipments of money to Italy. But, intending to return, more and more Italians remain. Italy comes to them and settles in the next street, in the next house; the immigrants work, not for a farm in Italy, but for a foothold in America; their savings are invested in the new country.

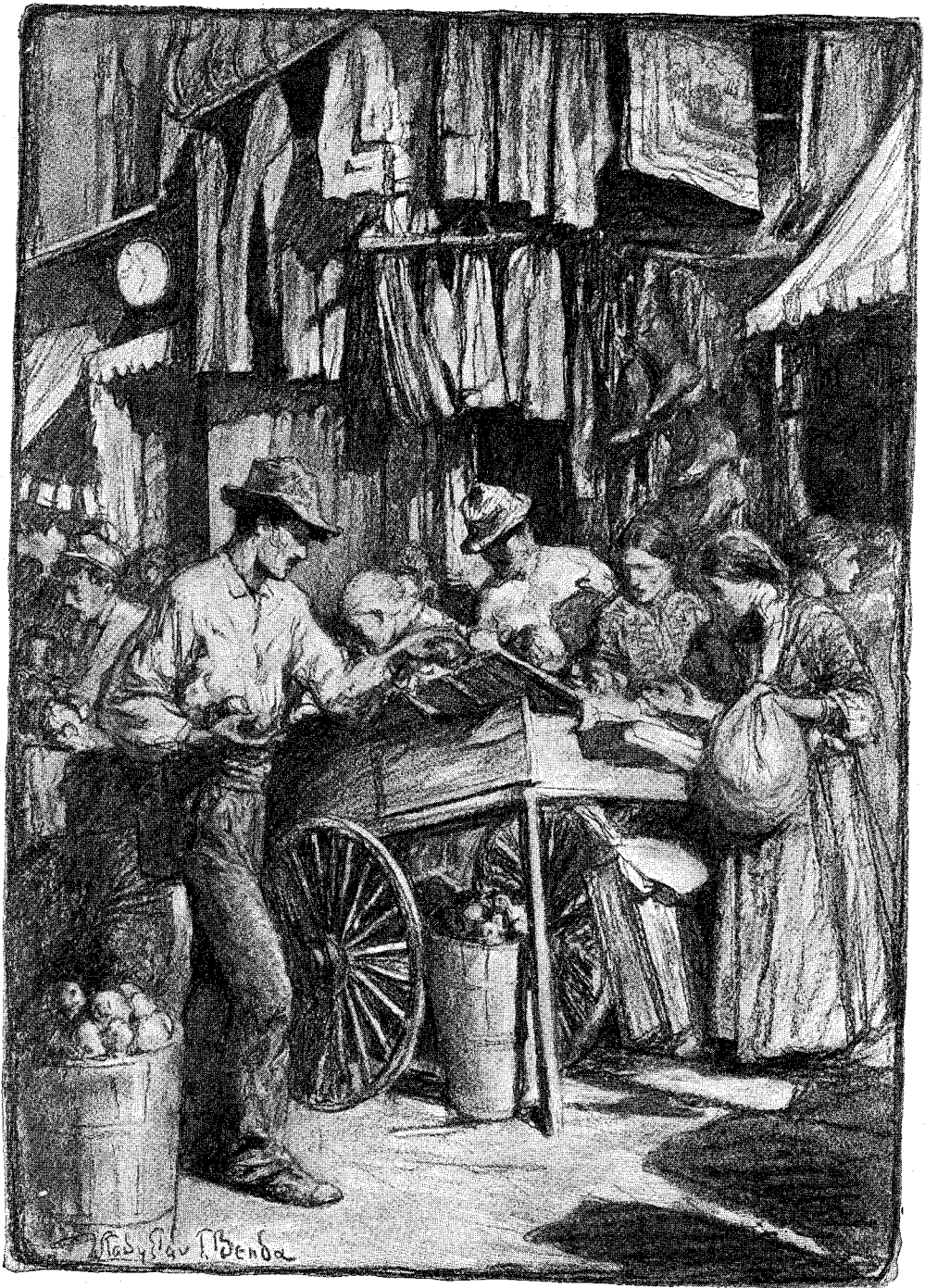
Already these savings and investments are swelling to large proportions. "We have deposits of over two millions," the president of a New York Italian savings bank told me. "If we received all the savings of the Italian immigrants, we should have tens of millions."

Enormous amounts, aggregating fifteen

to twenty millions of dollars, are collected in small sums by the little banks which dot the Italian quarters. Italians in New York City own over four thousand real estate holdings (valued at \$20,000,000), over ten thousand retail stores, and a considerable number of wholesale establishments. In Boston, Chicago, St. Louis, and San Francisco Italian savings and investments are proportionately larger. The number of Italian professional men—physicians, druggists, dentists, lawyers, public school teachers, architects, and mechanical engineers—rapidly increases.

That the Italians gain their foothold is also evidenced by their newspapers. There are dozens of these periodicals in





"IGNAZIO STILL SELLS HIS LETTUCE AND HIS PARSLEY  
AND HIS THIN LITTLE BUNCHES OF ASPARAGUS"

America—dailies, weeklies, and monthlies. Their mere existence indicates progress. Their advertising columns, true chronicles of the times, tell the story of Italian advancement in America. The Italians have money which advertisers want. Italian lawyers, doctors, dentists, pharmacists, photographers, bankers, bakers, restaurant-keepers, booksellers, opticians, and midwives offer their services or wares. The Restaurant of the Iron Crown, the Café of the House of Savoy, announce their attractions. Steamship companies, breweries, department stores, advertise. Here, too, is reflected the demand for brass bedsteads and phonographs. Real estate agents fill columns with proffers of cheap lots. Saloons and restaurants are offered for sale. Investment opportunities—good or obviously bad—are shrieked out in leaded columns. An air-line about to connect two great American cities spends a deal of Italian money to attract more Italian money. Though individually still poor, the Italians in the aggregate have large sums for savings, for investment, even for speculation.

If these sums could be divided with exact equality among all the members of our Italo-American population, each immigrant would be poor, but beyond the pinch of a degrading poverty. Even in the comparatively poor Italian population, however, there are millionaires and men with their tens or hundreds of thousands, while at the other end of the line there are many who have not a nickel for their night's lodging or their morning's breakfast. Thousands who escape the slow starvation of inanition are killed by dangerous work, by pneumonia and consumption, by their own ruthless exploitation, or by the exploitation of padroni. Thousands are cheated by the whole world, and are thrown back naked and ill upon the country from which they once fled.

Among those who fail, the educated Italian immigrant is often to be found. He is usually not so intent on gain, nor

so single-purposed. The superlatively cultured immigrant may find himself incapable of earning even a ditch-digger's wage. He is ready-made; he has ideals which clash with the rude materialism of the primal struggle to live. He gives lessons; he teaches to a careless, contemptuous youth the glorious history of the motherland; he dries up in a fever of misunderstood patriotism and unextinguishable homesickness.

It is upon another, a coarser and a more simple human material that the transmuting power of American life works. The man who here gets his foothold was, in Italy, a peasant; he was looked down upon as a clown and a lout. Here, if he succeeds, he sends his children to school, he begins to take part in public discussions, he contributes awkwardly to the formation of public opinion. He does all this because he becomes, as did our earliest pioneers, economically independent. A bank account to-day is what a log cabin and a hundred-acre lot were a hundred years ago.

This new, crude Italo-American voter and citizen of the United States is not a product of Old World culture, yet he brings with him an inheritance which is buried, but not lost. This peasant has his own vague ideals of art, of patriotism, of humanity and liberty. Though untrained, he is musical, for in Italy, so the proverb runs, "even the shoemaker's daughter can play the piano." He is timid, but courteous; rough, but with rugged virtues. In his blunt fingers is the cunning of centuries of craftsmen, in his dulled eyes is the sense of beauty of generations of artists, and in his heart there is a deep, warm, upwelling enthusiasm for much that is good and all that is beautiful. From these helots of our Western civilization, the despised Italian laborers, much genius and beauty will spring.

But that is for the future, for the second or the third generation. The problem of to-day is the getting of a foothold.

This article will be followed in successive Magazine Numbers of The Outlook by three other articles by the same author, entitled "Joseph Kaplan: Russian Jew," "Pericles of Smyrna and New York," and "Jan: the Polish Miner."





MAJOR-GENERAL LEONARD WOOD, U. S. A.  
Photographed for The Outlook at Governor's Island by Paul L. Anderson, October 16, 1909

# Training for War in a Time of Peace

By Major-General Leonard Wood

Illustrated with Photographs taken by Paul L. Anderson under commission from The Outlook

THE ultimate object of all military training is the thorough preparation of the soldier for war. The final and highest stage of such training is found in field maneuvers participated in by large numbers of troops operating over large areas and conducted under conditions simulating as closely as possible those of actual campaign. This type of training embodies in its thorough and intelligent application nearly all the details of the military training received by the soldier during his period of instruction, and calls for the fullest and most intelligent application to practical ends of what he has been taught.

The demands made upon the general officers and officers of the staff corps during the maneuvers are severe, and closely simulate those of actual war. They constitute in many ways a very practical test of the general officers engaged, especially those in command, who are called upon to organize and transport, either by rail or by sea, large bodies of troops, and to assemble them at the point or points previously determined upon for concentration. All this requires much forethought, careful preparation and execution. The methods employed should be the best possible under the circumstances, as the officers and men of the command will remember them with a view to applying them on some future occasion; hence all work must be done in the most systematic manner. When so done, movements of this kind are easy and rapid; whereas when thoughtlessly attempted, carelessly executed, and done without system, the greatest confusion results, much time is lost, all appearance of military efficiency and organization disappears, the men are discouraged and fatigued, lose confidence in their

officers and feel that they are in the hands of inexperienced men, and the operations commence under conditions prejudicial to their successful execution. In movements by sea the officers gain valuable experience in the care and handling of men on shipboard, and in well-planned and well-executed landings they acquire a knowledge and experience which will be of the greatest value to them in oversea or coastwise expeditions. In equipping their commands they must see to it that the troops take only what is absolutely necessary for the efficient performance of the duties before them, and leave all that can be left without affecting the fighting efficiency of the command. Once the troops are assembled, the problem is not alone to maneuver them, but also to feed them and look after them in many ways, for the troops are generally green and many of their officers inexperienced; all of which means that the commanding general or generals must give an unusual amount of attention to the care of the troops, and see to it that subordinate officers are in every way attentive to their duties. Company commanders of infantry are charged with many apparently small but really vital details, such as seeing that the shoes of their men are of the proper type and properly fitted, that the men take the best possible care of their feet, that their packs are properly made up and adjusted, that their meals are properly served, of good quality and sufficient in quantity, that every proper opportunity is taken on the march to rest their men, that steps are taken to obviate as far as possible chafes and sprains, that in hot weather every advantage is taken of shade while halting, that the men are cautioned and if necessary controlled in the use of drinking



water. In mounted organizations the officers are especially charged with the detailed care of their animals, which have to be looked after as carefully as the men in the infantry, or else the organization soon breaks down and its efficiency is greatly reduced or even entirely destroyed. They have not only the problem of the proper care of their men, but also that of their animals. Both foot and mounted officers learn much about the art of marching their commands, of which too often they know little or nothing. Officers of the various staff corps, especially the supply departments, are called upon to perform their duties under conditions which are very nearly those of campaign. Medical officers are required to perform practically the same duties which they would perform in campaign. The sick and injured must be looked after on the march, and arrangements made to transport those seriously ill to the base hospitals. In short, from general officer to private soldier, all are called upon to perform their various duties under conditions as much like those of actual campaign as it is possible to have them without the destructive use of the weapons of war. Once the troops are assembled at or in the vicinity of operations, and the general features of the problem understood, the actual work of the maneuver commences. The opposing commanders strive by all means in their power to ascertain the position, movements, and the intentions of their opponent. The cavalry is called upon to do the work it would do in campaign, as are the various bicyclists, patrols, scouts, etc. The general officers are almost as keen to win as though war actually existed, for they realize that every move will be severely criticised, and that the general handling of the situation will be carefully studied, and their reputation affected accordingly. They also realize that their entire conduct of the operations, the method of supplying the troops, the means adopted for their care, etc., etc., all count for or against them. The same feeling governs every officer in the supply departments and the commanding officers of smaller units, and even the soldiers themselves. For gradually the feeling grows upon all that they are really applying the principles of their profession under

conditions as closely simulating those of war as it is possible to have them. The people of the country are interested. They see troops working with the greatest seriousness, the magnitude and importance of military operations is gradually impressed upon them, and they commence to realize, oftentimes for the first time in their lives, what the war game means, and to appreciate how important it is for the instruction of all concerned.

For many years European countries have held very extensive maneuvers. In France and in Germany the number of troops engaged each year varies from 80,000 to 130,000 men. The game is played with the greatest seriousness. Large areas of country are covered. Every detail of concentration, supply, and movement is carefully worked out, exactly as it would be in case of war. In short, the whole purpose of the maneuver is to do in advance, as nearly as it is possible to do, exactly what would be done if war were declared. Not the slightest detail is neglected. The way in which the commanding generals solve the problems given them is carefully noted. If those in command display marked incompetency, their military careers generally terminate with the maneuver period. Criticism is not confined by any means to the higher general officers, but it extends to every officer engaged, and his conduct of the operations assigned to him is most critically observed, and his standing and rating largely affected by the results. It is difficult to overestimate the value of exercises of this sort for troops.

In this country, where our regular army is only a handful, wholly inadequate for the duty which it is called upon to perform even in peace times, and where the organized militia has so few opportunities for practical training, maneuvers are of the greatest possible value. Militia and regular general officers are called upon to perform duties which, in some instances, they have never had an opportunity even to attempt. They are suddenly confronted with the whole problem of organization, supply, transportation, and maneuvering of troops in the face of an enemy. They find themselves operating over an area many hundreds of times greater than the camps of instruc-





IN HEAVY MARCHING ORDER

The soldiers at the Albany maneuvers October 5, 1909, carrying full equipment—guns, ammunition, blankets, canteens, and intrenching tools



tion at which they have been accustomed to handle their brigades and divisions. In place of the well ordered and supplied permanent camps, they find themselves called upon at the close of each day's operations to select camps which must not only be suitable as far as possible from a sanitary standpoint, but must also be well suited to the military situation with which they are dealing. Each day's operations brings them into a new country. They are called upon to study their maps, to take into consideration the best use of the various roads, trails, and other means of moving troops and supplies. They are confronted with the problem of putting to the best military use the natural features of the country for offense or defense. In short, they are, most of them for the first time in their lives, called upon to handle their commands under conditions closely simulating those which would exist if they were called into service in time of war. When these facts are considered, the importance of maneuvers will

be readily appreciated. All officers learn to use maps intelligently, a subject they often know little about and have never had occasion to take up seriously. Map-reading and proper application of the information conveyed by good maps become a question of great importance. The system of supply is tested, and the efficiency or inefficiency of the supply departments is quickly apparent. In short, maneuvers are to war what fencing with the tip is to fencing with the unguarded point. Troops engaged do everything but wound and kill.

On small maneuver fields, where the troops return each night to their camp, there is little demand made on the general officers for the display of the higher qualities of command, the demands upon the staff officers are reduced to the minimum, and the experience they gain is of much less value, as the camps are fixed and the movement of baggage and supplies, one of the most difficult problems in war, is practically removed from consideration.



HASTY INTRENCHMENTS

The soldiers at the Albany maneuvers digging holes for cover in action, using intrenching tools (short-handed spades carried slung from the belt when in heavy marching order)





#### TARGET PRACTICE AT SHORT RANGE

The distances are not over two hundred yards

The demands upon the commanding officers of smaller units are likewise much less exacting than when the maneuvers cover large areas. Maneuvers on small areas are very valuable for small bodies of troops, especially as they give a good opportunity for detailed instruction in the elements of field work, but they cannot be considered except as a preliminary for the final test of the troops' training, namely, their exercise in well-conducted maneuvers covering a large section of country. To get the most out of the maneuvers the troops engaged must play the game in all seriousness, and conduct themselves exactly as though confronted by a real enemy. They must scrupulously observe all the rules of the game, and strive to carry out to the letter the instructions they have received in their preliminary training as to the use of cover, selection of positions, security and information, etc., etc. They must obey promptly and follow unquestioningly the orders and decisions of the umpires. When the maneuvers are con-

ducted in this spirit, they have a value which cannot be overestimated, for they embrace pretty much the entire field of the soldier's training.

Our militia has had maneuvers at various times and at various places. As a rule, however, the theater of operations has been too limited to obtain the best results or to give opportunity for the proper handling of large bodies of troops and daily study of country with a view to its employment to the best advantage by attack and defense. Generally speaking, after the first or, at most, the second day, the country is so well known by both sides that the work has lost much of its difficulty and interest.

Maneuvers should always be conducted with a definite object in view. That is to say, a situation should be assumed and a problem given. This situation and problem should be thoroughly understood by all officers concerned. Every movement thus becomes of interest to them. It is also most desirable that the maneuvers





TARGET PRACTICE AT LONG RANGE

The distance is five hundred yards and over

should take place on ground which would probably be the scene of operations in time of war, and that the problems proposed be those which would probably arise in case of hostilities with a foreign power. All this tends not only to increase the interest of the troops engaged, but it at once arouses widespread interest on the part of the general public, which sees in the working out of the problems its practical application to the problems which would

arise in case of war. They also serve to demonstrate the strength or weakness of the defenses of our great cities and ports, and to suggest possible remedies for existing defects.

In the recent Massachusetts maneuvers the condition assumed was as follows :

#### GENERAL SITUATION

On August 10, immediately following an unexpected severance of diplomatic





#### THE MACHINE GUNS IN ACTION

The photographer was informed by the officer commanding the platoon that the time from the blowing of the umpire's whistle occupied in unpacking, assembling, loading, and firing the first cartridge was only seven and two-fifths seconds. The guns are Maxims

relations, war was declared between a strong European power (RED) and the United States (BLUE).

On August 11 the (BLUE) North Atlantic Battle-ship Fleet, after a severe engagement with a superior (RED) fleet off the Maine coast, was defeated and scattered; the remnants of the crippled (BLUE) fleet took refuge in Portland and Portsmouth Harbors, and are now blockaded by the victorious (RED) fleet. Com-

mand of the North Atlantic Ocean has thus been positively secured by the RED fleet.

#### SPECIAL SITUATION, RED

On August 12 a portion of the victorious Red fleet left the Maine coast to report as escort to General Bliss, commanding the 1st Division, 1st Corps, Red Army, designated for operations in the Boston District.





THE SENTRY

On the same date General Bliss received the following letter of instructions :

Headquarters, Red Army,  
12 Aug. '09, 10 P.M.

*General Tasker H. Bliss,  
Commanding 1st Division, 1st Corps,  
Red Army :*

General—It is reported that the enemy is concentrating militia and a small force of regular troops for the defense of the Boston-Narragansett District. Reliable information received through our spies indicates that the fortifications in these districts are too strong to be carried by direct assault.

Our main army is already mobilized, and its concentration is nearing completion. Reinforcements will follow you as rapidly as our transport service will permit.

It is desired that you take full advantage of the victory gained by our navy. To this end you will press forward as rapidly as possible, land your command, and turn the enemy's fortifications from the rear. Endeavor to capture and hold a good base for subsequent extensive land operations of our armies.

To secure the greatest degree of mobility the transportation and baggage of your command will be reduced to a minimum.

Captain Gulick, commanding your naval escort, has been directed to co-operate with you.

Very respectfully,  
LEONARD WOOD,  
Major-General, Commanding.

#### SPECIAL SITUATION, BLUE

The main Blue Army is mobilizing as rapidly as possible, and Albany, New York, has been designated as its point of concentration.

On August 10, General William A. Pew, Massachusetts Volunteer Militia, was assigned to the command of the 1st Division, 1st Corps, Blue Army, constituting the coast guard for the District of Boston.

On August 12 General Pew received the following letter of instructions :

Headquarters, Blue Army, Albany, New York,  
12 August, 1909, 11 P.M.

*General William A. Pew,  
Commanding 1st Division, 1st Corps, Blue  
Army, Coast Guard for District of Boston:*

General—It is reliably reported that the enemy is preparing to follow up his naval victory by making a combined land and naval attack upon our seacoast fortifications, at some point between Narragansett, Rhode Island, and Portland, Maine. One of our scout cruisers has reported by wireless that at dusk to-day a hostile fleet, conveying a number of transports, was moving south about twenty miles east of Cape Cod. He could give no further information as to the strength of the fleet or the number of the transports.

Our mobilization is not yet complete; our

army is concentrating as rapidly as mobilized. No additional troops will be available to support you for ten days, but upon completion of our concentration you will be reinforced by our entire main army.

It is desired that you advance to the line Adamsdale, Attleboro, East Norton, North Raynham, Bridgewater, Silver Lake, Kingston, not later than midnight, August 14, and that you hold yourself in readiness to operate against the enemy wherever he may appear. After reaching the designated point your further operations will be left entirely to your discretion.

Very respectfully,

K,

Major-General, Commanding.

The objective of the Red Army was the capture of the city of Boston and, if possible, such portion of its harbor defenses as would open the port to the Red Fleet and make it available as a naval base for such further operations as the enemy might determine upon.

There has been a general feeling in this country that it would not be practicable to employ our militia or regular troops in large numbers in maneuvers in the thickly inhabited and cultivated portions of country, because of the damages which would occur, and other objectionable features. I have believed, however, that if officers and men were imbued with the right spirit and brought to appreciate the tremendous value of maneuvers and the absolute necessity of having them if we are ever to be in any way prepared for hostilities, they would enter into them in the right spirit and that they could be held with the minimum of damage and the maximum of advantage to all concerned. Acting upon this conviction, I took the matter up with the War Department and obtained its approval. The proposition was then presented to the authorities of the States concerned, and those of the District of Columbia, all of whom approved the plan and entered into it in a manner which can only be described as enthusiastic, and their support throughout was most cordial. The troops engaged were those of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and the District of Columbia, and one squadron, Tenth United States Cavalry.

The section of Massachusetts lying between Buzzards Bay and New Bedford on the south, Boston on the north, Plymouth on the east, and Taunton on the west, seemed, for various reasons, to be an



especially desirable one for the exercises contemplated. Such maps as were available were secured and others prepared. The selectmen of the various towns throughout the section in which it was proposed to operate were visited and the situation explained to them. Generally speaking, they received the proposition very well, although, naturally, many of them were alarmed at the prospect of having a body of twelve thousand or fifteen thousand troops passing through their villages and fields. The desirability of the maneuvers, the means which would be taken to secure good order and immediately pay for damages, were explained, as well as the methods which it was proposed to carry out to prevent forest fires, which were really the greatest danger we had to contend with, much of the region being forest. The section selected for the maneuvers was well adapted for one of the principal purposes of the maneuvers, namely, to give to the people of the country an illustration of the facility with which troops can be transported by water, landed, and moved through the country for operations against one of our great seacoast cities, and also the difficulty of mobilizing a sufficient force in any State or group of States to oppose effectively a well-trained, well-organized, and rapidly moving invading force, landed suddenly on the coast, thoroughly prepared to move quickly toward a well-defined objective. Nothing save the enemy could teach this lesson better than the actual presence of troops engaged in an operation of this kind. The people of our country are, as a rule, very ignorant of the preparedness of foreign nations, and of our own unpreparedness to meet effectively any aggressive action. We are too often told of our remarkable resources and too seldom made to understand our entire unpreparedness effectively and promptly to employ them. For, while we have a great mass of most excellent material, it is entirely undisciplined and uninstructed, and we have little with which to arm and equip it. Very few of our troops, either regular or militia, have been organized in brigades or divisions and given practical field exercises in maneuvers simulating the operations of war. Our general officers have been loaded up

with petty administrative details, our troops so scattered and our organization so defective that operations of regulars and militia covering large areas have been almost unknown in this country in times of peace. Our people sit in fancied security behind our seacoast defenses, which are excellent for the purpose for which they were designed, but the general public is unaware of the general limitations of these defenses. The most they can be called upon or expected to do is to prevent the enemy's fleet from entering our harbors or lying sufficiently near their entrance to bombard the cities behind them. If they do this, and are so placed as to compel the enemy to land at some distance from his objective, they have successfully performed the duties for which they were designed. But while efficient seacoast defenses add to the difficulties of an invasion, they are in no sense prohibitive. They make the enemy's work more difficult, but they do not necessarily prevent his ultimately carrying out his designs, which generally have for their object the capture of some great city or port, to be used as the base of further operations, or for the purpose of exacting an indemnity or compelling peace. Most of our great cities, once the command of the sea is lost, are open to land attack, and for this reason our militia should be so thoroughly organized, instructed, and practiced in real field work as to be immediately available for defense in case of attacks of this kind. The best way to impress upon the people the necessity for action of this sort is to demonstrate the facility with which an invading force can land and deliver successful attacks upon our seaboard cities. This kind of work emphasizes not only the necessity for an excellent militia, but for a sufficient amount of it to meet such demands as may be made upon it. The regular army, as at present maintained, is so small, so scattered, and so occupied with work in our insular possessions, as elsewhere, that very little of it can be counted upon to meet an emergency, and we must see to it, all of us, that the organized militia is much strengthened and brought up to a standard of the highest possible efficiency, and that the regular army is maintained at such strength as to make

immediately available at least three full divisions in case of war.

The success of the maneuvers depends very largely upon the work of the umpires. These officers should be carefully selected, and should be fully conversant with the duties which they are to perform, well up in the proper employment of the arms to which they are assigned, their capacities and their limitations. Their duties are extremely delicate and difficult, and call for a quick and clear grasp of the situation, good judgment, careful attention to all details, and great decision of character. They must keep themselves thoroughly posted as to the movements and whereabouts of the troops they are with, as well as the troops opposed to them, their strength, equipment, etc.; and they should be, whenever possible, officers of sufficient service, rank, and standing to entitle their decisions to the fullest consideration. Umpires are intended to supply, as far as possible, the impressions and effects of actual war. Their decisions may be said to take the place of bullets and sabers (and other projectiles and weapons), and prevent unnatural or impossible situations. It is for them to decide whether a command has held a position for a sufficient length of time to intrench itself; whether the dispositions for attack are properly made and the attack so supported and pushed home as to warrant its being judged successful or the reverse; whether the arrival of supports was at the moment to warrant success; whether the attack has made the proper use of cover; whether its fire has been of such a character as to warrant the decision being made that the fire of the defense was smothered, etc., etc. They must see to it that the maneuver exercises do not develop too rapidly, as is always the tendency; and they must, in judging movements, insist upon an amount of delay which will cause the movements to resemble closely in their execution those of actual war. They must note carefully the conduct of the troops, their leadership, their employment of cover, their use of ammunition, their adjustment of the sights of their pieces to the proper range called for by the position. They must not only give their decisions promptly, but they must see that they are immediately carried out.

They must divest themselves of all interest in the troops with which they are associated, and judge each action solely on its merits, taking into consideration all the elements in the problem before them. The orders which they give to the troops should always be given, when possible, through the commanding officer. In a word, their duties are to take into consideration everything that is happening—the strength of the forces engaged, their position, field and volume of fire, preparedness for attack or defense, and to decide what would have happened had an actual conflict taken place under the existing conditions. Once having reached this decision, they instruct the troops to do what they believe would have been done in action. They may decide that the troops on the defense have successfully repelled the attack, that the attacking force has been badly defeated and demoralized, that it should fall back into a new position, and that it will take it thirty minutes or an hour to reorganize. Or they may decide that the position has been captured with a portion of the defenders, and order the captured portion out of the maneuvers for the rest of the exercises. It will be seen that their duties are extremely delicate, and that upon their efficient performance depends very largely the success of the maneuver. With each army is a senior umpire who must decide questions affecting several units of the command; and, as a final resort, is the chief umpire, or, as he is more frequently called, the general in charge of the maneuvers, to whom important questions affecting one or both armies are referred for final settlement in case of protest or disagreement among the umpires. When the umpiring is well done, the maneuvers can be made to simulate very closely the conditions of actual war, and the operations made of the greatest value to both officers and men. To this end the umpires should, after the operations of the day, explain to the officers in command of the troops in detail the reasons for their decisions; why they judged them successful or unsuccessful, etc. The umpire in chief should, whenever practicable, hold a critique, at which the principal decisions of the day are fully discussed and explained. Where this is not practicable,



as is often the case in large maneuvers, a full report of the entire maneuver, covering each day's movements in as much detail as possible, should be furnished to the commanding officers of the troops engaged, together with maps showing the position of troops, their movements, etc. All this adds greatly to the value of the instruction, and enables officers to take up the problem as a whole and study it carefully after the maneuvers are over.

There are assigned to troops of each army officers of experience and ability as observers, who, in addition to the reports of the umpires, should note and report fully upon the general conduct of the troops, the way in which they were handled, the use made of terrain by the various officers, etc. These reports, wherever sufficiently explicit and detailed to be of value, should be furnished to the officer concerned in order that the mistakes noted may be avoided in future.

Maneuvers carried out on these lines are, as stated, of the greatest value to both officers and men.

The maneuvers held this year covered five days of hard work, commencing at 5 A.M. and ending at 1 P.M. each day. The interval from 1 P.M. to 5 A.M. was devoted to rest, and to readjustment when necessary of lines in compliance with the decisions of umpires when such decisions called for a change of position on the part of the troops engaged. The district operated over is an ideal one for field exercises of this kind. It is a country covered with forests sufficiently open for troops to pass through it whenever necessary. There are numerous lakes and rivers, small towns and villages, and numerous cultivated fields, cranberry bogs, etc., large swamps, fences, and stone walls. It would have been difficult to find, everything considered, a better section for operations, or one in which the opportunities for an intelligent application of the military art were better. The inhabitants of this section were at first rather dubious as to the advisability of maneuvers. They feared extensive damage to property, possible forest fires, disorderly conduct on the part of the troops, etc. At the close of the maneuvers the general sentiment throughout the section was one of appreciation of

the work done, and there was general approval and commendation of the excellent conduct of officers and men. Very few complaints were made. With each army there was a board of officers provided with funds and blank receipts and releases. They were assisted by a number of officers detailed as appraisers. Each organization commander was required to report immediately any damage done by his troops. These damages were investigated at once and a settlement made on the spot wherever it was possible, and in most cases the claims were sufficiently reasonable to warrant an immediate settlement. Whatever was needed by the troops in the way of forage or fuel was bought, receipts given, and arrangements made for prompt payment.

The maneuvers as a whole, in addition to demonstrating their great value from a military standpoint, have established conclusively the fact that exercises of this kind can be held in this country for a moderate cost and with a small outlay for damages. They have further demonstrated that the troops of the regular army and the organized militia can be depended upon to so conduct themselves as to warrant their extensive employment in maneuvers in the future in a settled and cultivated section of the country, such as is much of the country operated over.

The total amount allotted by the General Government for these maneuvers was only \$100,000. This, in addition to such funds as were provided by the States, represents the entire cost of the maneuvers. The amount (\$100,000) allotted was from the general allotment made by Congress for the militia, and no additional or new appropriation was needed. This amount covered the use of transports, rail and land transportation, wagon and auto trucks, extra pay, rations, rentals, and damages.

It was interesting to note the partisanship of the people. There was a decided sentiment in favor of the Blue Army, and many amusing incidents took place illustrating the desire to aid the Blues and delay as much as possible the Reds.

The result of the five days' operations was the advance of the Red Army to a point within striking distance of Boston, and there is little reason to believe that

the invasion would have been checked had the maneuvers continued two or three days longer.

The conduct of the troops on both sides was excellent. They entered into the spirit of the exercises thoroughly. Too much praise cannot be given. Drunkenness was unknown. There was no disorder, no acts of vandalism or hoodlumism, and I believe the object-lesson has been a useful one to the people of the country.

It also demonstrated to all people who looked at the problem from a military standpoint the entire inefficiency of our available force to meet any sudden, well-organized attack, and the necessity of a decided enlargement of our organized militia and its thorough instruction and equipment. It is especially short in cavalry, field artillery, and signal corps. Too much attention cannot be paid to this part of our establishment, and every effort should be made to stimulate and build up the interest of the public in the organized militia, as well as to impress upon it the necessity of a thoroughly organized regular army of sufficient size to meet, in conjunction with the organized militia, the first shock of active hostilities.

In considering the success or failure of staff departments at the maneuvers, it should be remembered that these departments were all placed under the charge of officers of the organized militia. The Chief Quartermaster, Chief Commissary, Chief Surgeon, Chief Ordnance Officer, and Chief Signal Officer were all officers of the organized militia of various States. They were placed in these responsible positions, first, to give them a very necessary experience, and, second, to demonstrate by a practical test whether or not they were fully equipped for the positions they held. It would have been comparatively simple to have run these departments by detailing regular officers, but in so doing one of the real purposes of the

maneuvers would have been lost, namely, the trying out of staff corps of the organized militia. Whatever mistakes were made did not result in any real hardship. The work was hard; at times, largely on account of the unusually bad weather, it was severe; but the sick reports show that no illness of consequence resulted.

The naval operations against the fortifications of Boston were extremely interesting and valuable. The artillery garrison of the Artillery District of Boston was strengthened by troops from other districts, with a view to meeting the rather elaborate scheme of operations against the defenses which had been prepared. Unfortunately, a severe northeast gale rendered it impossible to carry out a great portion of this programme. Sufficient was accomplished, however, to indicate certain points of weakness and indicate the necessary measures to correct them, and also to demonstrate the great desirability and necessity of the frequent repetition of operations of this sort against seacoast defenses.

It is believed that maneuvers on the lines followed this year should be of yearly occurrence on the Pacific and Atlantic coasts in those sections which would be most liable to attack in case of trouble with a foreign power. If this policy is carried out, our organized militia will soon become not only much more efficient than at present, but it will begin to realize more fully than ever before its real importance. Its officers will study the country over which they would probably have to operate in time of war. They will acquire most valuable experience in transporting and handling their troops under conditions most closely simulating those of actual war; and the public, once it appreciates the value of the work being done, will, I am confident, see to it that the organized militia and the regular army are given much fuller support than at present.



# Government Regulation of Wealth

By Reuben D. Silliman

Of the New York Bar

Any criticism of the courts by laymen is apt to meet with the rebuke from lawyers that it is an attack upon the very life of American institutions. It is well, therefore, for our readers to bear in mind that the following article is from the pen of an influential lawyer who has held an important judicial position. Mr. Silliman was in 1900 appointed by President Dole, of the Republic of Hawaii, a Judge of the Circuit Court of Hawaii, and after the Hawaiian Islands became a part of the United States he was reappointed to the same position by President McKinley. He now practices law in New York City as a member of one of the leading legal firms in the community. He has been identified with a number of celebrated cases which required a wide knowledge of corporation law and corporation practice, and of the constitutional principles underlying the relations of corporations and government. The corporation is becoming more and more a centralized industrial power; it must therefore more and more be regulated by a centralized political power; the regulations must be determined by the people through the central legislature; the courts must confine themselves to deciding whether the legislation of the people is in harmony with the Constitution, and to sustaining those laws which are constitutional; it is no part of the function of the courts to determine whether a law is wise or desirable—this decision must be left with the people. Such, briefly, is Mr. Silliman's argument. His article throws much light on what often appears to be a complicated problem, but is in reality a simple one—namely, the problem of maintaining harmony between the three branches of American government, the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. It is the function of the legislature, acting for the people, to make the laws; it is the function of the executive to administer the business of the country in accordance with those laws; it is the function of the courts first to determine whether the laws are those which the legislature has the power to make, and then to enforce them. The constitutionality of a law is to be decided by its relation to the Constitution, and not in the slightest degree by the opinion of the judge that another kind of law is more desirable. A striking case in point was the decision of Judge George Gray, of the United States Circuit Court, in the so-called Commodities case. One of the reasons which Judge Gray gave for declaring the law unconstitutional was that it would be "an open door through which the forces of a centralization hitherto unknown may enter at will." At the time, The Outlook questioned the validity of such an argument in determining the constitutionality of a law. The decision expressed in the opinion of Judge Gray was reversed by the United States Supreme Court, and Justice White, of that tribunal, in summarily dismissing this phase of Judge Gray's argument, stated the principle that "suggestions of inconvenience or harm are wholly irrelevant, as they cannot be allowed to influence us in determining the question of the constitutional power of Congress."—THE EDITORS.

## I. The Corporations and the People

Underlying social and industrial conditions in this country are slowly but surely drifting toward a change. There is no need of alarm. But there is food for serious thought. The truth cannot be smothered. Neither can it be kept down. Children born on farms and in the villages have been drifting to the cities, where they dwell in houses and flats leased from corporations, while the rich

are moving restlessly toward the brighter light of the courts and social centers of Europe, where, in the summer season, they flit about from place to place. On their return to America they spend a few days in Newport, attend the opera in New York, and then go South to the fishing and automobile races along the Florida beach. They come back in time for Easter, and are off again to Europe. The whole social fabric has become saturated with an itch-

ing spirit of restlessness and the insatiable desire to go and keep on going.

The small merchants are giving way more and more to the big department stores. Contracting is done by corporations. The farms, affording to the man of small means the only extensive remaining opportunity for an independent livelihood, are being bought up to a considerable extent by syndicates of real estate speculators and passed over to recently arrived Europeans who have not been reared among Anglo-Saxon traditions; while some of the people of Kentucky, whose farms are said to be held by a larger percentage of persons of English descent than are those of any other State in the Union, have been waging for the past two years or more a guerrilla war against the Tobacco Trust, and have destroyed the product of the State's fields in a vain attempt to punish that corporation by violent indirection.

All other business enterprises that once belonged to individuals are passing into the hands of corporations—creatures of the law and the stock markets—having a limited sense of civic responsibility and organized for money-making purposes. These corporations already dominate our commercial life and are the only extensive employers of labor. They have no vote, but, through their wealth and power of employment, influence many votes. As things are going, it will be a matter of a very few years when every important interest in America will have passed into corporate hands. In a short time there will be little personally owned property except corporate securities. There will then be two principal classes of citizens—the stockholders and the employees of corporations.

Through favoritism of railways and the absorption of competitors, by corporation influence over political organizations, State legislatures, and municipal councils, through stock and money market manipulation, salary grafting and the organization of subsidiary and holding companies, and, above all, by overcapitalization and the encouragement of margin dealings, aided by false hopes implanted and fraudulent concealments made, whereby many have been induced to invest their savings in high-priced minority shares in times of inflation only to sell them again in times of

panic and depression—by one or more of all of these devices, certain individuals in our own lifetime—a mere day measured by the course of history—have, through the aid of the corporation, accumulated fabulous fortunes.

But it is said that combinations of great wealth were necessary to build up the country's industrial system and make possible the comforts and conveniences which we enjoy and which could not have been brought about so quickly without corporate consolidation. It is argued that, however the results have been accomplished, they have produced great benefits, and this, together with the hope of gaining a share, even though a small one, of the spoils, accounts for the leniency that has made the present tendency possible. The argument is sound. Nature laid by a vast amount of wealth on this continent, and we have been scrambling for it like small boys after a handful of pennies, each trying to see who can snatch them up the fastest. But now that the game is over, we see that great wrongs have been committed, and, as the opportunities lessen, we may be sure that the appreciation of these wrongs will keep on growing.

The argument does not improve the situation nor lessen the need of clear thinking in seeking a solution. What are industrial economies worth, it may be asked, if the end is to be monopoly and a one-man control of the avenues of employment? A dependent people is necessarily servile. A servile people is never happy. If American hardihood of character is in danger of being sapped, as many sober-minded people really believe, if perils are foreboding more sinister than any that have threatened since the first settlers crossed the seas, we ought to look the matter squarely in the face and see if it cannot be remedied. It is well that America should rouse herself and take her bearings. Let us find whither we are drifting. After all, have we greatly changed in temper and impulses in the relatively short time that has elapsed since the growth of wealth, culminating at the end of the eighteenth century, fostered class and national jealousies that brought on a contest involving all Europe and which ended only with the exhaustion of the Napoleonic wars?



If the present system is out of harmony with the fundamental essence of things, the people will find it out, and frowning down discussion will not serve to make the final break less severe. If the people find that they cannot correct abuses in their own way, they will—as surely as history repeats her lessons—be swayed sooner or later by passion to violent extremes, and we may look for a wave of reform that will go to the very foundations.

But how are we going to reach the trouble? And where does the trouble lie? It lies in part in the singularly complicated structure of our government, by which, for instance, a group of men, by the mere filing of a verified document and payment of a prescribed fee, may organize a corporation under the laws of Maine or Arizona to take over properties in Florida, Illinois, or Alaska, or in all three, floating the company's "securities" on the financial markets of the East or West according to prevailing sentiment, and aiding the enterprise by false literature and "wash sales."

Manifestly, no single State can succeed in correcting an abuse like that. If prohibited in one State, it will cross the borders to an adjoining one, as many great corporations have done in stepping from New York to New Jersey. In attempting, then, to answer the question, How are we to be relieved of complicated commercial iniquity? let us look at the basis on which the structure rests.

## II. Who is the King?

The corner-stone of all authority will be found in this ancient maxim, "The king can do no wrong." Every age has had its own way of expressing it, but down at the bottom of things the substance of that precept will not be found wanting. It does not mean that mistakes will not be made, but that there must be some person or body of men whose mistakes can be corrected only by themselves or their successors. The last word must be spoken by some one. Who shall have this power is the most difficult of all the problems of government. Let us trace, briefly, the growth of it.

Authority first sprang from individual capacity and was enlarged by conquest.

Personal at the beginning, it was not long before advisers took over the administration of affairs. The next step was to make the succession of authority hereditary. This was done that the advisers might hold over after the chief's death and continue their authority in the name of his heir. When this was accomplished, monarchies replaced the rule by chiefs.

Monarchies are supported by soldiers and administered by chancellors. With the passage of time, all such governments have become more and more corrupt and oppressive. Finally the ruling clique has been overthrown by outside force or internal strife. A new set of counselors, proceeding on slightly altered lines, has then gone on with the old order of things until it, in turn, has been overthrown by others.

When, after many civil wars and revolutions, Parliament was made supreme in England, the landowners became the controlling element of the kingdom, and remained such until succeeded by the manufacturers and merchants, who were inspired by the increasing fruits of the application of steam to industry. Raising the battle-cry of "free trade," and in the name of commerce and the prosperity of the realm, they won a victory that placed them in power, and they have continued dominant to this day. To-day, however, a new social and political power is asserting itself in England; the working people are now forcing their will, to a considerable extent, upon the Parliament.

Through all these changes, and this is the important point, the legislative supremacy of Parliament has not been questioned. In the land from which this country took its institutions and, in the main, its plan of government, the legislature has been the king and the popular will the power behind the throne.

How is it in this country?

The thirteen colonies at the close of the War for Independence became separate, sovereign States. Their conflicting interests led to natural rivalries that threatened serious consequences. They came together and formed a plan for a central government. It was a step toward unity, and was wonderfully well taken for that day of limited travel, when there were only

sailboats, a few wagon roads, and horse trails. It was not to be expected that complete sovereignty would be surrendered. Necessarily and properly, sovereignty was divided. Part was vested in the new Federal Government and part was retained by the separate States. Prohibitions that in England had been placed upon the Crown were put upon the Federal Government, while other prohibitions restrained the action of the States. The courts in England had been intrusted with the power to prevent usurpations by the Crown, and the Supreme Court of the United States undertook to make effective the prohibitions embodied in the Constitution.

In 1819 the Dartmouth College case was decided. It involved the clause of the Constitution which forbids the States to pass "any law impairing the obligation of contracts." The Court held the charter of Dartmouth College to be a contract, and said in effect that it could not be altered by legislation.

Naturally such a decision has been variously regarded. Some have referred to it in glowing terms, as establishing "the Constitutional sanctity of contracts" and as "throwing an impregnable barrier around all rights and franchises" granted by the Government. Others have bitterly assailed it as the great pioneer of "judicial usurpations."

More than thirty years ago an Iowa judge said:

The practical effect of the Dartmouth College decision is to exalt the rights of the few above those of the many. And it is doubtless true that under the authority of that decision more monopolies have been created and perpetuated and more wrongs and outrages upon the people effectuated than by any other instrumentality in the Government.

What the influence of the decision has been is a matter upon which men will continue to differ. In disposing of attacks upon it the Court has usually said in substance that it is to all intents and purposes "a part of the Constitution itself."

When it is considered that such decisions are, almost without exception, made by a divided court, we see that unchangeable rules of law are created, not by a Constitutional Convention, but by the opinions of part of the judges, with oth-

ers—often four out of the nine—vigorously dissenting. But when the decision has been thus made, all of the judges acquiesce in it and it becomes part of the Constitutional law of the land.

By the middle of the century the slavery question had come under serious discussion. Congress had passed the Missouri Compromise, prohibiting slavery in the territory lying northwest of Missouri. Dred Scott, a slave, was taken by his master to Illinois, a free State, and from there to Minnesota, lying within the territory where slavery was prohibited. He was afterward taken back to Missouri and sold to a citizen of New York.

He claimed his freedom, and the litigation was carried to the highest court. It was held that he was not a citizen of the United States, was not entitled to bring a case in any of its courts, and could not claim his freedom in them. Chief Justice Taney declared that a person of negro blood whose ancestors had been slaves never could become a citizen of the United States. He also declared that the power of Congress over the person and property of a citizen can never be discretionary, but is regulated and defined by the Constitution.

Abraham Lincoln, among others, believed the decision wrong, and said so. When he was elected President, the South formed the Confederacy and the war began. The North prevailed, and, after it was over, three amendments were added to the Constitution. The first prohibited slavery. The second defined who were citizens of the United States so as to include persons of African descent. It was also declared that no State should make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privilege or immunities of citizens of the United States; "nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

The language in quotation marks has been applied by the Supreme Court for the benefit of corporations, and out of it, together with similar language in the fifth amendment, the doctrine of "confiscation" has been evolved. By virtue of the interpretation put upon those clauses and



the limitations placed upon the power of Congress to regulate commerce among the States, the Federal Courts are becoming clothed with final discretion over the commercial controversies involving the big corporations. So far as ultimate economic policies are concerned, there is emerging a single sovereignty in this country, and it finds lodgment in the peculiarly complicated, far-removed, and negative action of the United States Supreme and Circuit Courts.

**III. Why the People, through the Legislature, should be Supreme**

The application of maxims like those which support the doctrine of confiscation necessarily lies close to the realm of political speculation and is oftentimes colored by the party affiliations of the members of the court. Of necessity it brings the court into the very field of turmoil from which it was the particular hope of the founders of the Republic that it might be kept free. When political and economic considerations, which belong to the forum of popular discussion, enter the halls of justice, personal traditions are too apt to take the place of reason and the deliberation and unanimity which ought to prevail there are bound to suffer in the heat of controversy. The very independence conferred upon the judges through their life appointments and the declaration that their salaries shall not be diminished during their continuance in office renders their position all the more precarious and makes it more certain that their decisions, if not the court itself, will, in times of stress, be bitterly assailed.

And what will be the result if the people shall some day elect a radical President with the purpose of having him fill the courts with radical judges, appointed to establish as Constitutional principles their notions on economic and political matters? How will the advocates of court control feel when such judges begin to evolve new schemes of their own with what Mr. Wickersham has called "judicial alchemy"? There is very respectable authority for the assertion that Constitutional interpretations do not bind the judges as other precedents do. The contingency may seem to be a remote one, perhaps, but is

it so surely remote as some of us would like to believe?

If the courts, through their applications of flexible maxims, are to remain the tribunal by which the last word of economic and political wisdom is to be spoken, their mistakes of judgment (and who can avoid them?) are bound to compel an appeal outside themselves to the reason and passions of the people. On the one hand, errors of legislation do not throw doubts upon the legislative authority. They affect only the members of that particular legislative body. Criticism is legitimate because it is not aimed at the machinery, but only at the individuals who are in control of it. The people will replace the legislators guilty of error, while the pressure of public opinion will change any unfair legislation that may have been adopted. On the other hand, it is the persons who profit by court decisions who become the objects of attack of those whose resentment has been aroused by them. It is the court's precedents and the court itself, rather than the judges who sign the opinions, which are sure to become involved. The ones who receive the benefit of the rules of law established, and the court as an institution, become the immediate objects of the public wrath.

The recognition of the full legislative power of Congress over all commerce which is in fact National in character would tend to bring about more uniformity of law and greater simplicity in its enforcement. It would mean the unfettering of the power to deal directly with our industrial and transportation problems. It would mean the ability to stop abuses, the abridgment of subtlety, and the end of a reign of complicated negation. It would mean more certainty and expedition in the courts, and, what is of at least equal importance, the separation of legislative from judicial functions. We shall never reach the root of the trouble until we have a legislative body with full power to express the people's will in the field of National commerce. The Dred Scott decision forced the Civil War, and this country knew no peace until it had been done away with. Nor shall we be relieved of the bane of complicated iniquity until we have turned back to first principles. We are no longer thirteen separate com-

munities. We have grown into one great Nation. In commerce, industry, language, and literature we are one people. But in the eye of the law, save for certain limited purposes, we are forty-six foreign and independent sovereignties!

Disguise it as we may, the discretionary power of judges has been feared from time immemorial, and hence the jury system. Nor have the judges in other countries exercised high political functions. And here tendencies and precedents have compelled them to stand for the protection of the man who has won out. He who has the property—no matter how he got it—is accorded the full measure of every presumption of innocence and right dealing. Avarice necessarily finds encouragement to overreach and then resist.

Within their proper sphere, however, the courts should have full power. They must be able effectively to apply the laws and policies that the people, through their legislative body, shall have established. They must have ample authority to

enforce their orders. The tendency—and it is a very bad one—has been to weaken all governmental action. The courts have embarrassed the legislatures and hampered the executive. And we have heard an earnest cry for legislation to curtail the power of the courts. As a people, are we not too suspicious of power, more fond of tearing down than we are of building up?

Just as the jury represents the people in ordinary court trials, so the legislature should represent them in the field where basic principles are molded. In matters relating to commerce and industry the courts should confine themselves to the interpretation and enforcement of laws passed. The reign of a legislative body with ample authority over the big business of the country should be established. The will of the people should have free play. The Congress should exercise all of the power to regulate commerce "among the several States" that the framers of the Constitution intended to confer upon it.

## IN A SNOW-STORM

BY CLINTON SCOLLARD

The evanescent wonder of the snow  
Is round about us, and as in a cloud—  
A vestiture inviolate—we walk.  
Earth seems bereft of song and shorn of sun,  
A cloistral world. Even the lyric throat  
Of the rapt brook is like a pulse-beat faint.  
The wood—white architrave on architrave—  
Is as a temple where the lips of prayer  
Tremble upon the verge of utterance.  
Hush! In the heart of this great gulf of sleep,  
This void abysmal, may we not divine  
The Inscrutable Presence clothed about with dreams,  
The Immaculate Vision that is death yet life,  
For out of death comes life: the twain are one!



# The Ineffective Voter

By H. J. Haskell

WHILE Chairman Payne, of the Ways and Means Committee, was making his defense of the conferees' report of the Tariff Bill to the House, July 31, a member interrupted to ask why the duty on shingles had been increased from thirty to fifty cents a thousand. According to The Congressional Record, Mr. Payne replied as follows :

This twenty cents a thousand on shingles seemed likely to dissolve the council of the Nation in regard to the tariff. It was most strenuously insisted upon. Any of you gentlemen who have been on committees of conference know how these things are. Senator So-and-so wants something and must have something. Finally, I told them I was willing, in this great trade on the lumber schedule, involving millions of dollars, to throw in a jackknife like shingles and give them the rate at fifty cents, and that was adopted, and that is the way it came about.

This incident is cited, not because of its bearing on the tariff question particularly, but because it illustrates a fundamental defect in American politics. Senator So-and-so was not insisting on an increase in the duty on shingles because a majority of his constituents—or a majority of the men who voted for him—desired it. He was complying with the wishes of a few powerful interests in his State. In other words, he was representing, not the voters, but the *effective* voters—the men whose support he felt he must have, and whose opposition he feared.

Everywhere in politics—in city, State, and National politics—this phenomenon is repeated. Our various governments in general represent the effective voter. In the majority of the States there is manhood suffrage. But manhood suffrage of itself signifies little. It frequently results in unrepresentative government. The average elective official really cares little for the views of the bulk of the men who voted for him, because he knows that, under ordinary circumstances, most of these men will take only an academic interest in the problems with which he is dealing. They will pay little attention to what he is doing, and, if he is clever at explanations, he may expect them to vote

for him at the next election even though his course may have been in opposition to their beliefs. It is the effective voter that he caters to—the man who contributes to the campaign fund, or who is busy on election day, and who watches what the official does, with the purpose of supporting or opposing him.

In the instance already cited the big manufacturers of shingles were the effective voters. In cities frequently the saloon men are pre-eminently the effective voters, or it may be the interests owning the public service corporations, or an alliance between the two. In State governments the railway managers have often been in the saddle because they were effective; they watched the record of every member of the Legislature, and they saw to it that his way was made smooth when he voted to please them and hard when he voted against their interests.

How shall voters be induced to enroll themselves in the effective class? No change in machinery can rid the country of the ineffectiveness that comes from apathy. But the general line of advance is clear. Much of the existing apathy is due to the cumbersomeness and complexity of our political machinery. Authority and responsibility are divided. When things go wrong, the voters are at a loss whom to blame. We must simplify our political machinery wherever possible. We must adopt the Short Ballot, reducing the number of elective officials so that we may know what we are doing in an election. By stringent corrupt practices acts, and perhaps by making the expenses of elections more of a public and less of a private matter, we must limit the field of operations of the voters who desire to be effective by wrong methods. We must rid our governments of elements that tend to confuse the people and that make it difficult for the average man to distinguish between the good and the bad public servant. Working along such lines as these will develop the number of really effective voters, and so will promote a more truly representative government.